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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES FOR  
FEMALE GRADUATES OF UNIVERSITY  
BUSINESS PROGRAMS

by

MURRAY W. BROWN

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES  
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE  
OF MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND COMMERCE


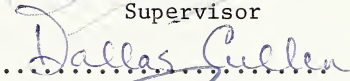

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA  
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled Labour Force Participation Rates for Female Graduates of University Business Programs submitted by Murray W. Brown in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration.

  
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Date January 7, 1971  
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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the factors that influence and determine the labour force participation rates for female graduates of university business programs.

Questionnaires were mailed to women who had graduated from university business programs for the period 1960 to 1969, and data were obtained on their employment records and experiences. In addition, attitudes and opinions were recorded, relating to topics such as supervision, family responsibilities, and discrimination.

A second questionnaire was designed to obtain the employers' view of the field of women's employment, and to determine their problems and attitudes.

Based on the questionnaire replies, a number of the relationships suggested in the literature survey were examined. The theories relating to the field of women's employment were also reviewed and examined in terms of the questionnaire results.

The factors that determine whether or not a woman decides to seek employment are a complex assortment, relating to the disciplines of economics, psychology and sociology. This study has attempted to integrate the applicable components of these disciplines in terms of a model.

The greatest deterrent to the employment of female graduates of university business programs is the presence of young children. The feeling of responsibility for the raising of children is





stronger than the desire for employment. The second major factor related to the lack of acceptance of female employees. Third in order of importance was the requirement for the husbands' co-operation.

Many of the obstacles to women's employment may be overcome through public education. Businesses could adapt to better accommodate women, if they fully understood the problems and the possible solutions. The basic area for improvement is in the social acceptance of women workers, which requires a long period of time for change. The area of social acceptance, or the lack of it, is an area which has need for much further research.



# TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	
LIST OF FIGURES . . . . .	
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Purpose . . . . .	5
II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK . . . . .	7
III. PROBLEM ANALYSIS . . . . .	24
Internal Factors - Positive . . . . .	28
Internal Factors - Negative . . . . .	31
External Factors . . . . .	34
Hypotheses . . . . .	40
IV. RESEARCH STRATEGY AND TECHNIQUES . . . . .	42
V. ANALYSIS . . . . .	47
Positive Internal Factors . . . . .	50
Negative Internal Factors . . . . .	61
External Factors . . . . .	71
VI. CONCLUSIONS . . . . .	93
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	106
APPENDICES . . . . .	110
APPENDIX A . . . . .	111
The First Questionnaire . . . . .	112



APPENDIX B . . . . .	118
The Second Questionnaire . . . . .	119
APPENDIX C . . . . .	<u>112</u>
Summary of First Questionnaire Results . . . . .	<u>112</u>
Summary of Second Questionnaire Results . . . . .	130
APPENDIX D . . . . .	133
Selected Tables . . . . .	133



# LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1.	Reasons for Working . . . . .	51
2.	Effect of Husbands' Incomes on the Continuous Employment of the Wives . . . . .	53
3.	Effect of Husbands' Educations on Wives' Job Satisfaction . . . . .	54
4.	Relationship Between Size of Town and Female Graduates' Employment Histories . . . . .	58
5.	Relationship Between Employment Histories of the Female Business Graduates and their Mothers . . . . .	60
6.	Effect of Husband's Attitude on Wife's Employment . . . . .	64
7.	Effect of Husband's Attitude on Wife's Current Employment . . . . .	65
8.	Salaries Reported by Female Business Graduates .	66
9.	Effect of Husband's Salary Level on Wife's Current Employment . . . . .	68
10.	Effects of Husband's Salary Level and Attitude .	69
11.	Effect of Husband's Education Level on Wife's Employment History . . . . .	71
12.	Employer Comparison Absenteeism and Turnover for Single Women, Married Women, and Men . .	73
13.	Effect of Marital Status on Absentee Rates . .	74
14.	Effect of Marital Status on Turnover Rates . .	75
15.	Employer Rating of Male and Female Supervisors .	76
16.	Difficulties Caused by Female Supervisors . .	77
17.	Effect of Previous Experience With a Woman Supervisor on Preference for Sex of Supervisor . . . . .	78





18.	Relationship Between Employer Rating of Supervisors and the Employer Hiring Practices . . . . .	79
19.	Relationship Between Type of Business and Employment Practices . . . . .	81
20.	Relationship Between Organizations that Employ Both Male and Female Graduates . . . . .	82
21.	Effect of Marital Status on Business Employment Practices . . . . .	83
22.	Employer Rating of Problems Cause by Female Employees in Staff and Management Training Position . . . . .	85
23.	Reasons Reported by Female Graduates for Not Having Achieved a Satisfactory Level of Employment . . . . .	86
24.	Opinions of Female University Business Graduates on Personal Experience of Sex Discrimination . . . . .	87
25.	Relationship Between Reported Discrimination Based on Sex and Marital Status . . . . .	88
26.	Relationship Between Age and Discrimination Based on Sex . . . . .	90
27.	Relationship Between the Years of University Graduation and Reported Discrimination Based on Sex . . . . .	91
28.	Relationship Between the Years of University Graduation and Reported Discrimination Based on Marital Status . . . . .	92
29.	Number of Questionnaires Returned From Each University . . . . .	133



## TABLE

## PAGE

30.	Relationship Between Father's Education and the Current Employment of the Female Business Graduate . . . . .	135
31.	Relationship Between Father's Education and the Employment History of the Female Business Graduate . . . . .	135
32.	Reasons Reported by Female University Business Graduates for Lack of Continuous Employment Since University Graduation . . . . .	136
33.	Effect of Husband's Salary Level and Favourable Attitude . . . . .	137



# LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		PAGE
1	Indifference Curve for Family Income . . . .	16
2	Types of Labour Force Status Change . . . .	18
3	Labour Market Supply and Demand for Professionals . . . . .	19
4	Factors Influencing Labour Force Participation Rates for Female Graduates of University Business Programs . . . . .	22
5	Factors Influencing Labour Force Participation Rates for Female Graduates of University Business Programs . . . . .	25



## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The concept of labour supply is basic to the study of labour economics. Labour supply has been defined by Dr. Sylvia Ostry as the number of man-hours of labour of average efficiency that will be forthcoming at various levels of wage-rates per hour.<sup>1</sup> For research purposes, the concept of labour supply has been operationalized by using the concept of labour force. This is defined as the number of men and women, at a given point in time, who are willing to work. The labour force is divided into two components, male and female. The male component of the labour force is relatively stable. As at September 19, 1970, the participation rates for males over fourteen years of age was 75.8%.<sup>2</sup> Participation rates are defined as the number of men (or women) of any specified age group who are part of the labour force, expressed as a percentage of the total number of men (or women) in that age group, within the population. An individual is part of the labour force if he either was working or was seeking work during a specified period of time. The comparable participation rate for the female component of the labour force was 35.6%.

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<sup>1</sup>H.D. Woods, and Sylvia Ostry, Labour Policy and Labour Economics in Canada, (Toronto: MacMillan of Canada, 1962), 534.

<sup>2</sup>Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Trade and Commerce, The Labour Force, Volume XXVI, Number 9, September, 1970), 4.





The size of the female component of the labour force has been increasing. To illustrate this, Canada Department of Labour statistics indicate that the number of female workers, expressed as a percentage of the total labour force, has risen from 21.9% in 1951 to 28.3% in 1964.<sup>3</sup>

Further to this, it has been stated in the Canada Year Book<sup>4</sup> that while the total labour force in Canada increased by 1,677,000 in the period 1959 to 1968, 922,000 of this figure consisted of women workers. In fact, while the total labour force has increased from 6,077,000<sup>5</sup> in March, 1959, to 8,384,000 in September, 1970,<sup>6</sup> the number of female workers has increased from 1,501,000 to 2,710,000 in the same period of time. Expressed as a percentage of the total labour force, the number of female workers has increased from 24.7% to 32.2%.

It is also interesting to note that the labour force participation rates for women have increased over time. For example,

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<sup>3</sup>Canada, Department of Labour, Women at Work in Canada, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1964), 12.

<sup>4</sup>Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Industry, Trade and Commerce, Canada Year Book, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer), 1969, 763.

<sup>5</sup>Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Trade and Commerce, The Labour Force, Volume XV, Number 3, (March, 1959).

<sup>6</sup>Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Trade and Commerce, The Labour Force, Volume XXVI, Number 9, (September, 1970), 5.



according to the Canada Year Book<sup>7</sup> for women fourteen years of age and over, the participation rate increased from 26.7% in 1959 to 34.4% in 1968. For men in the same age category, the participation rate dropped from 81.0% in 1959 to 77.0% in 1968.

Another trend of interest to the study of women's employment is the fact that the proportion of married women workers is increasing. In 1959,<sup>8</sup> 44.3% of the employed women were married; in 1968 this figure has increased to 54.7%.

It should also be noted that a difference exists in participation rates based on marital status. For example, at September 19, 1970, the participation rate for single women aged twenty to sixty-four years was 68.0%, and for married women was 35.0%.<sup>9</sup>

Manpower, coupled with technological innovations, is an important factor in economic growth. It has been previously noted that the male component of the labour force is relatively stable, while the female component has been increasing. An important publication on the subject of this female component resulted from a number of conferences held under the auspices of the United States National Manpower Council. This resulting publication, entitled

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<sup>7</sup>Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Industry, Trade and Commerce, Canada Year Book, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer), 1969, 766.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid.

<sup>9</sup>Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Trade and Commerce, The Labour Force, Volume XXVI, Number 9, (September, 1970), 5.



Womanpower, emphasizes the importance of the female component of the labour force: "There can be no economic growth without an expansion of the labor force even if the productivity per worker increases, ... there is no means of increasing the working population other than by making better use of the skills and talent of women in this country".<sup>10</sup>

The problems of women's employment are similar both in the United States and Canada. In the United States, in 1968, 37.1%<sup>11</sup> of the members of the labour force were women, as compared to the 1970 Canadian figure previously discussed, of 32.3%. Also in 1968, the participation rates for women twenty-five to thirty-four years of age in the United States, was 42.8%, and for those thirty-five to forty-four years of age was 48.7%.<sup>12</sup> The comparable Canadian figure, discussed previously, established a 1968 participation rate of 36.4% for women of twenty-five to forty-four years of age. Even though the American participation rates are slightly higher, it is possible to conclude that many females in both countries are not in the labour force.

Any increase in the labour force must come from three sources:

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<sup>10</sup>U.S., National Manpower Council, Womanpower, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1957), 140.

<sup>11</sup>United States, Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Handbook on Women Workers, Bulletin Number 294, 1969, 10.

<sup>12</sup>Ibid., 18.



1) Firstly, there could be an increase of male and female workers through immigration.

2) Secondly, over the long run period, an increase in the birth rate, coupled with a constant or decreasing death rate could provide for additional workers through the natural increase in population.

3) Thirdly, an increase in the number of females willing to work would also increase the total size of the labour force. This source of labour supply will be studied in detail in this paper.

#### PURPOSE

The basic fact remains that over two-thirds of the female population that are employable remain out of the labour force. The purpose of this study is to investigate the factors which restrict female employment to such a relatively low level. The level of female employment can be evaluated in terms of participation rates.

It is also a purpose of this paper to determine and evaluate the factors which determine the nature of the jobs that women are able to obtain. Such factors include the study of promotional opportunities, as well as related factors such as absenteeism and turnover rates.

An understanding of these factors, both from the viewpoint of the women themselves and from their employers could result in a greater utilization of this womanpower resource. The justification for this type of study is outlined in Womanpower: "Women constitute





so significant a part of the working population that an understanding of their behavior in the labor force and of the factors which influence it is essential for an adequate appraisal of the country's total manpower resources".<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>13</sup>Ibid., 32.



## CHAPTER II

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A minimal amount of theory has been developed in the field of women's employment. Society has tended to think of the world of work in terms of men only. In the section that follows, we shall attempt to outline the theories relevant to women's employment.

Probably the first attempt to understand female employment came about with Woytinsky's<sup>14</sup> "additional worker" theory of the 1930's. During the Depression, he argued that the unemployment of husbands induced wives and other family members to enter the labour force in greater numbers. They enter the labour force only because the usual breadwinner is unemployed. He explains:

"Among the persons available for employment at any given time, there are in addition to the workers who regularly engage in gainful pursuits a number of others who for one reason or another temporarily seek gainful employment. In periods of exceptional demand for labor additional workers are an important part of the reserve from which labor shortages are met; in depressions the appearance of additional workers on the labor market intensifies the competition for the available jobs and increases the amount of visible unemployment (the number of persons seeking work)".<sup>15</sup>

Woytinsky's basic concept of a female worker is one who is forced to work for financial reasons.

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<sup>14</sup>W. S. Woytinsky, Additional Workers and the Volume of Unemployment in the Depression, (Washington, D.C.: Committee on Social Security of the Social Science Research Council, January, 1940).

<sup>15</sup>Ibid., 1.



Woytinsky's article was shortly followed by Long's<sup>16</sup> "discouraged worker hypothesis". He reasoned that "....even though additional workers may appear in the market in periods of slack demand, their influence on the unemployment totals will be offset, either completely, or in part, by those who become too discouraged to continue looking for work".<sup>17</sup>

Both of these theories tended to center on the Depression first, and on women workers second. Women were considered strictly as secondary workers, who floated in and out of the labour market, based on economic needs.

The study of organizational behaviour has also been reserved for men only. Max Weber's writings on the bureaucracy as the ideal type of organization<sup>18</sup> have become a classic. However, a brief review of some of the characteristics he assigns to a bureaucracy indicate that he was obviously not considering women.

In the Canadian context, and depending upon their family responsibilities, women are not necessarily personally free; it has also been indicated that very often attitudes about the competences of the two sexes over-ride skill qualifications. In this case, candidates would be selected on a basis of sex first, and technical

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<sup>16</sup> John Korbel, "Female Labor Force Mobility and its Simulation", Human Resources in the Urban Economy, ed. Mark Perlman, (Baltimore, The John Hopkins Press, 1963).

<sup>17</sup> Ibid., 56.

<sup>18</sup> Max Weber, "The Ideal Bureaucracy, "Organizations and Human Behavior, ed. G. D. Bell, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), 86.



qualifications secondly. His concept of salary scales, that people are remunerated according to the rank in the hierarchy, also does not apply. Regardless of rank, women are paid less than men. The most important difference comes in his statement that the office is the primary occupation, and the job comes second. For many women, a job may not be a career. It is just a job. A very interesting question could be asked as to whether or not an organization with a very large number of female employees could be considered a bureaucracy in Weber's terms.

The Hawthorne Studies<sup>19</sup> were an exception in that they did study a group of women, who were assembling telephone equipment. They found that the greatest change in their behaviour resulted not from what was being tested, such as lighting, work hours, and coffee breaks, but from the fact that the girls were being studied, that someone was taking an interest in them. Out of this developed further hypotheses concerning social relationships on the job. The observations for which this study is noted came about as a result of a further test on a group of men, who were wiring banks of equipment in the same plant. Their findings were certainly revolutionary. The question, however, might be asked as to whether or not there were any basic differences between a group of men and a group of women. Their motives for working are certainly different, and this might have an

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<sup>19</sup> E. H. Schein, Organizational Psychology, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965), 27-30.





effect on the informal organization of the groups involved.

Very little research has been undertaken to find out the effects of having groups composed of both sexes. According to Caplow, "...a group of male workers will almost invariably oppose the introduction of a woman into their midst. In the case of privileged occupations, the presence of women is felt to weaken the cohesiveness of the group and to diminish its offensive and defensive strength".<sup>20</sup> This indicates the possibility that there may exist discrepancies in the organization and behaviour of groups within organizations, based on the sex distribution of its members.

Even the question of group leadership can be confused by the sex distribution. In terms of charisma, does the same leadership candidate appeal equally to men and women? Men and women tend to react differently to certain individuals, or at the least, judge them by a different set of standards. Part of the lack of cohesiveness in small groups could result from the fact that the men and women involved are unable to agree upon the choice of a leader.

Women workers very often experience a great deal of role conflict. This type of conflict, and the resulting attitudes can be shown in an article by McClelland.<sup>21</sup> In the achievement test he

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<sup>20</sup>T. Caplow, The Sociology of Work, (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954), 242.

<sup>21</sup>D. C. McClelland, "Business Drive and National Achievement", Organizations and Human Behavior, ed. G. D. Bell, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), 185.



is giving to business executives, he asks them for their comments about a picture of a man looking at a picture on his desk of his wife and family. If he thinks of taking the boy fishing, he is a low achiever, and by implication, not going to go very far in the business world. How much more so is the role conflict of this man's wife. Society expects her to put first her husband and her family. If she is to have an outside job at all, it must under no circumstances take priority over her family. If a child is ill, it is normally the duty of the mother to stay at home and nurse him back to health. The family role is the primary role, and the job is often relegated to second, or third place.

Problems may also arise when both the husband and the wife are intellectually and academically prepared to enter professional fields. There is always the problem that they may end up in competition for the status that is attributed to various jobs, and compete for income. The traditional role of the husband as the provider of the family income can be shattered under these circumstances, and marital problems can often result from this. According to Parsons, "As a structurally unsupported relationship resting largely on emotional attraction, it (marriage) must be protected against the kind of stresses that go with severe competition for prestige between the members".<sup>22</sup> Based on this argument, he states that women should be

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<sup>22</sup>Talcott Parsons, "Age and Sex in the Social Structure of the United States", American Sociological Review, vol. 7, no. 5, (October 1942), as quoted in T. Caplow, loc. cit., 255.



excluded from the occupational system. The occupational system automatically assigns status to various jobs, and such status automatically results in marital conflicts.

The most primary role conflict, then, is in the home, with the husband and the wife both trying to be the wage-earner. The next role conflict comes about as a form of role activation conflict. When certain family afflictions arise, such as the sickness of a child, the home life suddenly takes priority over the work life. (The home conflict between husband and wife could also be role conflict, but of the role legitimation variety, that is, the husband denying that the wife has the right to play the role as a breadwinner).

Another problem arises in the interactions with others, particularly men and employers. A difference may arise in the role expectations of the men, in their idea that a woman's place is in the home. This is in effect role legitimation conflict.

Women also encounter serious problems with regard to promotional opportunities, especially to those positions that have supervisory responsibilities. Caplow outlines the two basic attitudes that men hold towards women: "(1) that it is disgraceful for a man to be directly subordinated to a woman, except in family or sexual relationships; (2) that intimate groups, except for those based on family or sexual ties, should be composed of either sex, but never



of both".<sup>23</sup>

This attitude is outlined by Whyte.<sup>24</sup> In a restaurant, the normal procedure was for the waitress to take the order for drinks from the customer, and then in turn order the drinks from the bartender. This turned out to be a point of friction and delay. The bartender, a man, did not like to have his work initiated by a woman. Reaction by the bartenders ranged from surliness to sabotage. A similar problem did not arise when men initiated the orders from other men, or when men initiated the orders from women.

One of the driving forces for employment may be traced to Schein's<sup>25</sup> concept of self-actualization, that is, seeking meaning and accomplishment in work. The role of the housewife is not generally considered to be very stimulating. A desire for a more challenging type of work and life would be quite understandable. In terms of Maslow's<sup>26</sup> hierarchy of motives or needs, the husband provides for security and survival. The other needs would seem to have to be met either through employment, or other voluntary types of institutions. Social needs are met through dealings with other people. This, plus self-esteem or self-actualizing, are logically met in most job situations. Autonomy and independence come from

<sup>23</sup>Ibid., 238.

<sup>24</sup>W. F. Whyte, Human Relations in the Restaurant Industry, as quoted in T. Caplow, loc. cit., 241.

<sup>25</sup>E. H. Schein, loc. cit., 56.

<sup>26</sup>Ibid.





having a certain amount of independent income, and a role in life as an individual rather than as a wife only. There is no reason to assume that Maslow's hierarchy applies only to men.

The role of the housewife and mother cannot hope to satisfy this variety of needs. Caplow has described the role of the housewife as follows:

"This occupation is the only one which shows approximately the same distribution of intelligence and of all aptitudes as the general population. One of the reasons for the widespread maladjustment of housewives may be inferred from the circumstance that the same job requirements are imposed on morons and on women of superior intelligence. There is no age requirement either. Girls of ten years and upwards may be able to keep house competently; and it is frequently done by women in their eighties".<sup>27</sup>

The earlier writers in the field of organizational behaviour have tended to ignore the problem of female workers. This has only recently become a field for major research. One author has approached the problem in terms of professional occupations, and the continued existence of a gap between the supply and the demand of these professionals. Gold writes that "The question of professional commitment now looms as a 'decision' for the educated woman because society appears to offer her an option, whereas it does not do so for men".<sup>28</sup> This option, whether to work or not, is constrained by the

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<sup>27</sup>T. Caplow, loc. cit., 260.

<sup>28</sup>Sonia S. Gold, "The Professional Commitment of Educated Women", K. Baier and N. Rescher, Values and the Future, (New York: The Free Press, 1969), 270.



culture and by the family life-styles.

There are five basic alternatives listed by Gold for dealing with the severe shortages in the professional corps:

- (1) narrowing the array of goals, for the society.
- (2) reducing the standards for some of the goals.
- (3) increasing the workloads of the present professionals.
- (4) expanding the professional corps.
- (5) efforts toward manpower reducing technological innovations.

The author then rejects the first two alternatives, because society is forever developing new wants, and new and complex ways of satisfying existing wants. It would also be difficult, if not impossible, to increase the work loads of the existing professional corps. Technological innovations may reduce manpower needs, but this is uncertain. In fact, this may tend to stimulate new wants and further increase the demand for professionals. The only viable alternative, then, is to increase the size of the professional corps. One of the most logical ways of doing this is to include a large number of females. Gold emphasizes that "...increased professional participation by educated women is a necessary condition for goal achievement".<sup>29</sup>

In economic terms, Richard Perlman<sup>30</sup> has formulated indifference curves for married women workers. He looks at labour as a

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<sup>29</sup>Ibid., 271.

<sup>30</sup>Richard Perlman, Labor Theory, (Toronto: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1969).



family unit, and demonstrates the direct relationship between the income of the husband and the desire of the wife to work. <sup>l</sup>Perman states that "...his income acts on his wife's labor-supply schedule as if it were non-wage income at zero effort".<sup>31</sup> If the family income desired cannot be earned by the husband, then the wife enters the labour market to make up the deficiency. Included in this analysis would have to be readily substitutable factors, such as the availability of domestic help. This approach is illustrated on the following diagram:

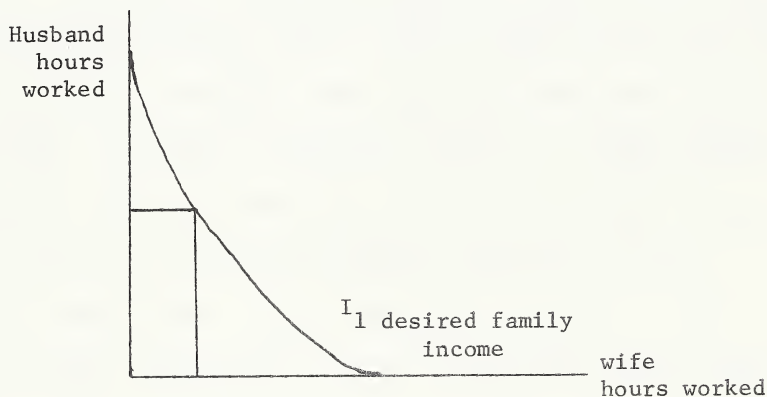


Figure 1

Indifference Curve for  
Family Income

The desired family income can be achieved by the husband and wife working various combinations of hours. This is, in a sense,

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<sup>31</sup>Ibid., 22.



very similar to the "additional worker" hypothesis discussed earlier. If the husband alone cannot earn the desired family income, then the wife enters the labour force as a secondary worker. Of course, the shape of the indifference curve depends on the relative wage rates per hour of the two parties.

The main fault with the above type of evaluation is that it is restricted to the discipline of economics. It does not consider the accompanying social and psychological considerations that influence the decision of the wife as to whether or not to seek employment.

Much of the study of female employment is carried on in terms of labour force participation rates. This is complicated by the fact that women may, over a lifetime, leave and enter the labour force a number of times. In terms of statistics, there is a slight problem in computing the numbers of women who are not in the labour force. The simple criterion of seeking employment immediately places a person in the labour force. As was discussed previously in the "discouraged worker hypothesis", a number of women who cannot find employment will shift quite quickly out of the labour force. An example of the variety of types of labour force status change is illustrated in the following diagram by M. Perlman:<sup>32</sup>

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<sup>32</sup>Mark Perlman, loc. cit., 63.





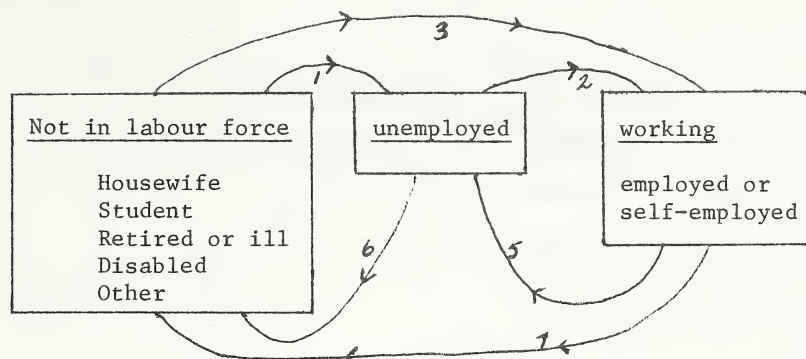


Figure 2

### Types of Labour Force Status Change

The number of changes of status is quite evident from this diagram. Steps one and three are where they enter the labour force, and steps six and seven are where they leave the labour force.

In terms of labour force participation, Sonia Gold<sup>33</sup> has developed a model demonstrating the processes by which the labour market, influenced by private and social goals, operates to balance the supply and demand for professionals. These values, plus the existing technology, act jointly to determine the actual professional participation rates.

The top line of this model represents the demand for professional women, while the bottom line represents the supply of professional women. The model shows the interactions between individual goals, social goals, and the existing and changing technological framework.

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<sup>33</sup>Sonia S. Gold, loc. cit., 288.



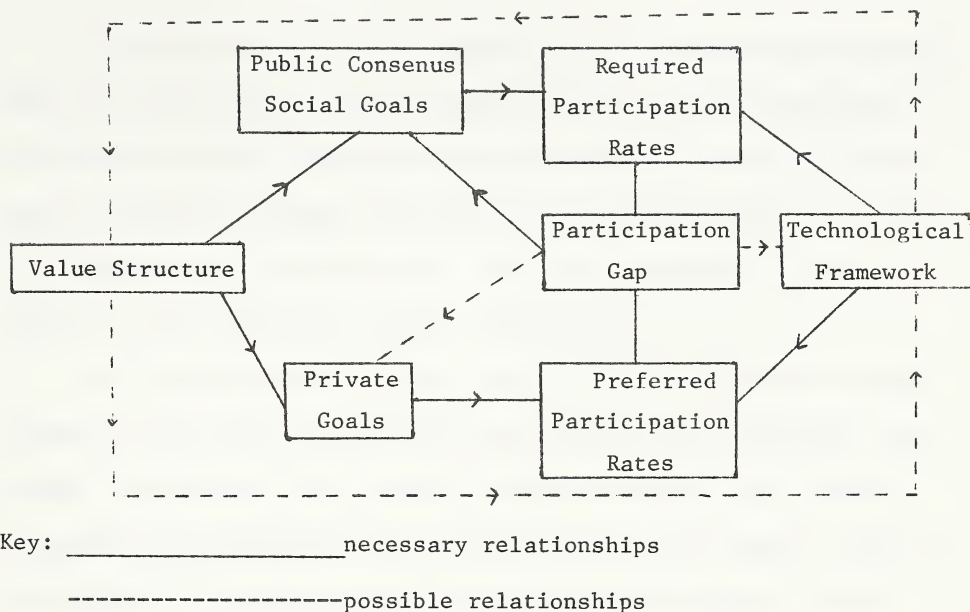


Figure 3

### Labour Market Supply and Demand for Professionals

In the short run period, values and technology are fixed. If a participation gap exists, that is, a disequilibrium between supply and demand, there are three causes:

- (1) the value structure leads to incompatible social and private goals.
- (2) the technology adversely affects the required and preferred participation.
- (3) The value structure and the technology may be opposed.



In this short run, Gold suggests that if demand exceeds supply, that is, if the required participation rates exceed the preferred participation rates, then the social goals will be coerced. If the supply exceeds the demand, the resulting equilibrium will be reached by a change in the private goals. This latter approach is again similar to the "additional worker" hypothesis.

In the intermediate period, there is the possibility of small changes in the value structure and the technological framework. Any changes in these two items require a new equilibrium. For example, if demand for professional participation exceeds the supply, there is a possibility of organizational change that would permit a greater use of part time workers. On the other hand, if the supply exceeds the demand, similar to the short run period, they will be unable to find employment, will change their private goals, and withdraw from the labour market.

In the long run, it is possible to have major shifts in the value structure and the technological framework. If the required participation rates exceed the preferred participation rates, the value structure will shift to limit social goals, hence encouraging greater participation. There is also the possibility of technological innovations reducing the professional manpower requirements.

However, in the long run, if supply exceeds demand, the value structure will change to encourage social goal expansion, or to encourage the development of new private goals. The social system



will operate so as to encourage them not to seek employment. One example of this change in the value structure would be an increasing desire for leisure as opposed to goods. Such a value shift would result in a lower preferred participation rate.

The advantage of this model is that it demonstrates, in general terms, the processes that affect employment decisions. It shows the interaction of the technological environment, the social goals of the society, and the goals and ambitions of the individual worker. For women workers, technology continually demands an increasing required participation rate. However, the value structure tends to reduce this figure. Social goals still tend to encourage women to stay at home. In terms of private goals, many women prefer to remain at home, raising their children.

For the purposes of this study, a further model has been devised. While this model will be discussed in detail in the following chapter, a brief introduction here would be of interest. This model tends to operate at a micro level, rather than at the macro level of the previous model. It attempts to begin with the individual female worker, and follow through the factors influencing her decision as to whether or not to seek employment.





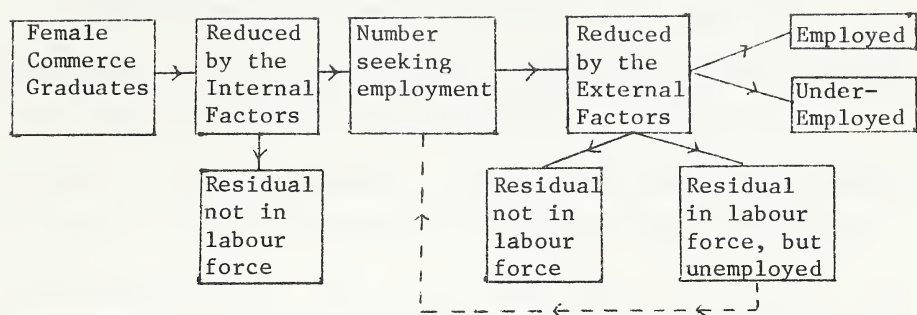


Figure 4

#### Factors Influencing Labour Force Participation Rates for Female Graduates of University Business Programs

The internal factors listed above are basically those reasons that determine an individual woman's decision as to whether or not she should seek employment. This obviously includes the private goals of the previous participation model. However, in a family situation, it would also reflect the private goals of other members of the family. To the extent that social goals also influence private goals, these too would be reflected in the internal factors.

The external factors relate to the attitudes and actions of the potential employers. In full force they represent the value structure and the social goals. Obviously, the external factors would include the technological framework, which would determine the number and the type of positions available.

The two models are quite similar in content, but the basic one for this paper deals with the individual's search for employment.



The problem of determining why women work, especially professional women, is not simple. It cannot be answered in terms of one discipline, such as Long, Woytinsky, or Perlman have attempted to do with economics. Any approach towards understanding this problem must include economic factors, but must also include psychological factors, that is, the goals and the objectives of the individual. It must also take into account the value structure of the society, and its reaction to women working. An attempt must be made to integrate these disciplines, to present a comprehensive analysis of the topic of women's employment.



## CHAPTER III

### PROBLEM ANALYSIS

The body of knowledge relating to the employment of women can be roughly divided into two categories. These two categories have been identified by the author as the "Internal Factors" and the "External Factors". The concept of internal factors relates to the multiplicity of inputs that determine a female worker's decision as to whether or not she is willing to enter the labour force. The concept of external factors relates to the attitudes and actions of employers towards the hiring and the utilization of female workers. The body of knowledge relating to the employment of women will therefore be evaluated and categorized according to these two groups of factors. Within each group, some factors will encourage employment, while others will discourage it. Some factors will be complementary, while others will be contradictory. The internal factors that encourage a woman to work will be called positive, while those that discourage her from working will be called negative.

The influence of these two groups of factors on the participation rates of women can be explained by the following model:



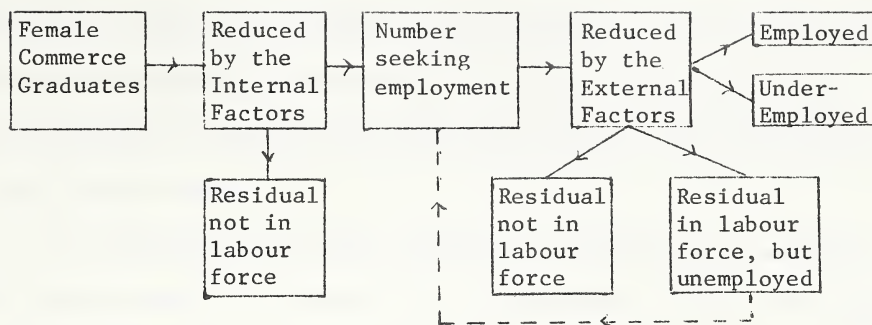


Figure 5

### Factors Influencing Labour Force Participation Rates for Female Graduates of University Business Programs

Two concepts have been introduced in this model which have not been previously discussed. The first new concept is that of Female Commerce Graduates. The position occupied in this model by this concept could be occupied by any specified group of females. If we are interested in the employment opportunities for female graduates of university business programs, then this concept may be defined as those females who have received undergraduate university degrees in business from Canadian universities, for any specified period of time. However, the validity of the model is not dependent upon the characteristics of the group chosen.

The second new concept introduced is that of under-employment. This is basically defined as an employee working at a job that does not require the training held by the employee. One example of this might be a woman with an undergraduate business degree working as a





secretary. While she is employed, and counted as part of the labour force (as measured by participation rates) she is in effect not fully employed in terms of her using the training that she possesses to its fullest extent.

In reviewing this model briefly, we could begin by assuming any group of women is involved. For the purposes of this particular model, the starting point has been the group of female commerce graduates. Based on the classification of internal factors that follows, some of these women will decide that they want or need to work, and some of them will decide against working. The internal factors are strictly individual factors. Each person makes an individual decision as to whether or not to seek employment. Those who decide to work, and actively begin to search for employment immediately become part of the labour force. The basic qualification to become part of the labour force, assuming age requirements, is that you must be seeking employment. On a group basis, this decision to become part of the labour force is reflected in a rise of participation rates for women.

The next area portrayed by the model is the number of factors influencing each group in its search for employment. The external factors now become effective. Based on the attitudes of employers, and on the particular characteristics of women workers, some will no doubt be unable to obtain work. Those with strong positive internal factors will remain in the labour force and will continue to seek



employment. In this position, they are classified in the model as unemployed, but because they are still in the labour force, they are still counted in the participation rates. The remainder of this group, with only marginally positive internal factors will withdraw from the labour force completely, and give up the search for employment. This is basically the discouraged worker hypothesis that has been discussed previously.

Of the number actually employed, some will obtain positions in harmony with their training and experience. Others, however, will be required to take positions that do not enable them to make full use of their training and background. These are classified by the concept of underemployment. Based on their family arrangements, and on the attitudes of their employers, they may be excluded from the opportunities for promotion to supervisory positions, and from entering various training programs offered by the employers. It is in this instance that participation rates can be misleading. They do not distinguish between full employment and under-employment.

The path followed for any one individual is very complex. Each of the internal factors varies with the particular individual's circumstances. The external factors vary from employer to employer, and it is the unique combination of the internal factors and the external factors that determines the final positions that are obtained.

The role of the internal and external factors has been illustrated by the model, and has been discussed in detail. It is



important to realize that the interactions of these two groups of factors determine the participation rates for women. With this in mind, it is then essential to investigate fully the nature of the internal and the external factors.

## INTERNAL FACTORS

### I Positive Factors

1) The first, and most important internal factor is that of income. Some postulate that the desire for a larger family income is one of the prime factors for encouraging participation in the labour force for those women who are married.<sup>34</sup> Single women work for self-support, as do single and married men.<sup>35</sup> It is argued that single women are almost as likely to be in the labour force as are single men, and that the least likely of all to be in the labour force are married women living with their husbands.<sup>36</sup>

One interesting current development in Canada that may lead to an increase in female employment is the recently experienced increase in the cost of housing. As house prices rise at a rate faster than that of incomes, it becomes necessary for women to

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<sup>34</sup>L. D. Eyde, Work Values and Background Factors as Predictors of Women's Desire to Work, (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, 1962), 88.

<sup>35</sup>M. B. Turner, Women & Work, ed. I, Bernstein, (Los Angeles: Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, 1964), 9.

<sup>36</sup>U. S., National Manpower Council, loc. cit., 65.



obtain employment in order to raise the family income to a level sufficient to obtain satisfactory housing.<sup>37</sup>

A study of married women workers in Great Britain<sup>38</sup> resulted in a percentage breakdown of the reasons why women work: 73% listed economic factors, (which is by far the most important single category) 13% listed mental stimulus, 7% listed enjoyment, and 6% listed social factors. The same study listed the factors (internal and negative) that caused women not to work: 52% listed children, 10% listed health, 10% listed the attitude of their husband, and 7% listed home responsibilities.

2) The second major internal factor (positive), relates to educational training. Education is related to the above mentioned category of mental stimulus.

Women do receive training at universities. It has been suggested that such training could be better utilized than by being applied to household duties. (It should be pointed out, however, that there is some controversy about the purposes of education, and specifically the purposes of advanced education for women. This conflict will be discussed at a later stage in the paper). A number of women have received undergraduate university degrees in business.

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<sup>37</sup>While no research is at present available to verify this internal factor, it is the belief and experience of the author that this is indeed a strong reason for seeking employment.

<sup>38</sup>V. Klein, Britain's Married Women Workers, (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd., 1965).





In 1968, eighty-six women graduated in this field from Canadian universities.<sup>39</sup>

The level of education influences the participation rates. For women with university degrees, the participate rate was 55% in 1965.<sup>40</sup> This is considerably higher than the participation rates for all women workers. However, the critical factor is the training itself, as studies have indicated that the desire to work is not dependent upon the student having worked while going to university, nor on the grades received.<sup>41</sup> The effect of education is evaluated by V. Klein: "The more highly trained a woman is, the more rewarding her employment will be both intellectually and financially. Education will not only have qualified her to hold a more interesting and responsible job, but it will, more often than not, have promoted the habit of seeking satisfaction in mentally stimulating work".<sup>42</sup>

3) The third positive, internal factor relates to the increased time that a woman has to devote to her employment. The reduction in the number of hours in the work week has enabled more women to work. The fact that the standard work week has been reduced

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<sup>39</sup> Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Industry, Trade and Commerce, Canada Year Book, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer), 1969.

<sup>40</sup> P. Cockburn and Y. R. Raymone, Women University Graduates in Continuing Education and Employment, (Canadian Federation of University Women, 1966), 37.

<sup>41</sup> L. D. Eyde, loc. cit..

<sup>42</sup> V. Klein, loc. cit., 138.



from sixty hours in 1900 to the present level of forty hours has in effect made it possible for many women to combine a full time job with household duties.<sup>43</sup> This has been a major factor in accounting for the increase in the participation rates.

The rapid growth of technology has also lessened the burden of household duties. Developments of canned and frozen foods, dishwashers, and other technical achievements have reduced the amount of work that must be done. In addition, the customs of our society have encouraged the husband to work in the home, and assist with doing the dishes, laundry and shopping.<sup>44</sup>

4) A fourth internal factor relates to the environment of the individual. One study of a group of female university graduates at Ohio State University indicated that a girl was more likely to work if her mother had worked. The possibility of her working was also directly related to the amount of prestige and status of her father's job.<sup>45</sup> It has also been suggested that women raised in rural communities would be less likely to work than those raised in urban communities.

## II Negative Factors

1) The first and most important internal, negative factor relates to the number, and ages of children in the family. Elmer

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<sup>43</sup>Canada, Department of Labour, Women's Bureau, loc. cit., 11.

<sup>44</sup>E. F. Baker, Technology and Woman's Work, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1964).

<sup>45</sup>L. D. Eyde, loc. cit..



Winter has discussed the work behavior of women according to a classification covering six distinct stages in their lives. It is seen from this classification that there is a distinct relationship between the possibility of working and the ages of the children.

- (a) Student: In this stage, very little work is done, if anything, it is part-time work.
- (b) Unmarried young woman: In this stage, full-time employment is normal.
- (c) Married, no children: Again, the tendency is for full-time employment, but to a lesser extent than for the unmarried woman.
- (d) Married, pre-school children: The trend here is for most women not to work at all.
- (e) Married, older children: In American society, the average age of women returning to the labour force is thirty-five. In this case, it represents an increase in employment.
- (f) The Mature Worker: This is simply a continuation of the previous category, with a participation rate second only to that of single women.<sup>46</sup>

The greatest increase in employment has come from those married women who are over thirty-five years of age. This is due, in part,

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<sup>46</sup>E. L. Winter, Women at Work, (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1961).



to a trend towards younger ages of marriage for women, as well as a trend towards having smaller families.<sup>47</sup> This combination has resulted in a lessening of child-rearing responsibilities at an earlier age.

2) The second negative, internal factor relates to the husband. Co-operation of the husband is a very definite requirement for most married women to be able to work. However, it has been suggested that this conflict is at a minimal level, because women with strong desires to work tend to select mates who are in agreement with their wishes.<sup>48</sup>

3) The third negative factor relates to the problem of loss of skills. If women have been out of the labour force for a considerable period of time there will inevitably be some loss of skills. Technological advances will have taken place during this period of absence. The study and work needed to regain these skills, and learn new ones, may outweigh the desire to return to work.

4) The fourth negative factor relates to the problem of wages. In 1959, The Canadian Department of Labour reached the following conclusion: "The practice of paying women less than men for the same work remains widespread".<sup>49</sup> This lack of equitable payment may also

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<sup>47</sup> Canada, Department of Labour, Women's Bureau, Changing Patterns in Women's Employment, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1966), 6.

<sup>48</sup> L. D. Eyde, loc. cit..

<sup>49</sup> Canada, Department of Labour, Equal Pay for Equal Work, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1959), 1.





be a factor in discouraging employment.

It is also interesting to note further evidence of pay differentials, in that every province in Canada<sup>50</sup> has a lower minimum wage for women than it does for men. Further information is provided by the Canada Year Book.<sup>51</sup> For example, in the city of Edmonton, the average salary in 1967 paid to males in the position classified as intermediate clerk, was \$155.76. For females employed in the position classified as intermediate clerk, the average salary in 1967 was \$80.21.

#### EXTERNAL FACTORS

As discussed previously, the concept of external factors relates to the attitudes and actions of employers towards the hiring and the utilization of female workers. To illustrate this, women are often considered to be inferior to men. Because of this, they are normally paid less than men for similar work.

1) The first external factor reflects the fact that all women do not necessarily need to work. This is emphasized in Womanpower: "The fact that most women are not the principal breadwinners of their families means that they are relatively free to choose between paid work, on the one hand, and volunteer work, work in the home, or

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<sup>50</sup> Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Industry, Trade and Commerce, Canada Year Book, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer), 1969.

<sup>51</sup> Ibid..



leisure, on the other hand".<sup>52</sup> This concept could almost be viewed as the businessman's view of the sum of the internal factors influencing an individual woman's decision to work. The opinion would indicate that the internal factors appear to be rather weak.

2) The second external factor is possibly an outgrowth of the first. Women are less reliable employees as evidenced by the fact that they have higher turnover and absentee rates than do men. Turnover relates to the frequency of changing jobs, and absentee rates relate to periods when an employee is not present at the job. A study done in the Public Service Commission of the Canadian Government came to the following conclusion: "The labour force turnover rate, that is, the extent to which workers enter and leave the work force in a given period of time, is still much higher for women than for men, and their withdrawal from employment stretches over a longer time".<sup>53</sup> A study done of married women employees in Great Britain substantiates this finding. Businessmen were asked to compare married women, single women, and men, on a basis of turnover rates and absentee rates. In both categories, married women had a higher rate than single women, and men were the lowest.<sup>54</sup>

Women in the labour force exhibit different characteristics than do men. Once a man is in the labour force, he will remain.

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<sup>52</sup>U.S., National Manpower Council, loc. cit., 49.

<sup>53</sup>Canada, Department of Labour, Economics and Research Branch, Women in the Public Service, by S. Judek, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1968), 5.

<sup>54</sup>V. Klein, loc. cit..



Women tend to move frequently in and out of the labour force. To illustrate this, as published in Womanpower: "When a man leaves a job, particularly if he is between twenty-five and forty-four years old, the chances are overwhelming that he will remain a member of the labour force. When a woman leaves a job, she may also be withdrawing from the labour force".<sup>55</sup>

3) In addition to these measureable factors, there also exists an attitude on the part of employers towards women employees. Jobs are often thought of in terms of being "men's work" or "women's work". This problem is illustrated by Womanpower: "Many employers are strongly influenced by deep-rooted 'traditions' according to which the universe of jobs is divided into 'men's' and 'women's' jobs".<sup>56</sup> This type of attitude over-rides skill and individual qualifications. This accompanies the belief that men and women have special abilities and talents that make them more suitable for specific types of jobs. The work of women in the business and industrial world has followed very closely the types of work associated with women in the home. Women have traditionally been associated with caring for the sick, training children, making and caring for clothing, and serving and preparing food. Women tend to become involved in similar capacities when they enter the world of work.<sup>57</sup>

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<sup>55</sup> U.S., National Manpower Council, loc. cit., 27.

<sup>56</sup> Ibid., 88.

<sup>57</sup> Ibid., 57.



Women are stereotyped, and considered in terms of a group, rather than as individuals.

4) The fourth external factor indicates that women would not be hired for positions that are designed to lead to managerial or supervisory positions. Women do encounter difficulties in obtaining promotions. This attitude is explained in Womanpower: "The widespread belief that women workers are likely to quit their jobs at any moment constitutes a serious limitation on their opportunities for promotion, as well as on the range of jobs for which they are hired".<sup>58</sup> For similar reasons, companies do not feel that it justifies the expense to put women on costly training programs if they are liable to quit their jobs at any moment, or if they are liable to quit because their husbands are required to move. It is often considered by employers that the primary concern of the married woman is for her home life, and that the job is of a secondary nature. For advanced training and promotion to be of value to the firm, there must be a commitment on the part of the employee to the firm.

5) The fifth external factor relates to the physical characteristics of women. Women are considered to be physically inferior to men. One estimate suggests that, on the average, women have only 85% the size of men, and only 60% the strength of men.<sup>59</sup> There are many jobs that are not suitable for women, particularly those jobs

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<sup>58</sup>Ibid., 241.

<sup>59</sup>Ibid., 227.





that require much physical strength. However, the greater use of machines has helped to reduce the sheer physical strength needed for some jobs.

On the other hand, the physical superiority of men has been challenged in an article by A. Montagu.<sup>60</sup> He suggests that men have more diseases and more handicaps, more unusual diseases, higher mortality rates, greater rates of alcoholism, recover more slowly from illnesses, and even have more automobile accidents than do women.

6) The sixth external factor relates to the social environment which has existed, that has had an influence on the acceptance of women into the working community. In the past, it has been denied that women have the right to work. It was debated as to whether or not women should be allowed to undertake university training. E. F. Baker describes the controversy over female education that took place in the Nineteenth Century: "There was great question about the advisability of a college education for women, however. It has contended that they were mentally inferior and would be entirely unable to meet the standards set for men; that they were too frail to withstand the physical strain of higher learning; that overstudy would give them brain fever, and if they lived and were able to have

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<sup>60</sup> A. Montagu, The National Superiority of Women, (New York: MacMillan Co., 1953).



children, the children would be sickly".<sup>61</sup> This social attitude is further indicated by the remarks made by the United States Secretary of Labor, James L. Davis, who in 1922 said: "...at the same time all will agree that women in industry would not exist in an ideal social scheme. Women have a higher duty and higher sphere in life. Eve was the companion and helpmate of Adam and in every way his social equal, but it was for Adam to protect Eve and provide for their posterity....I personally prefer to see a woman guiding the destiny of the nation -- in the home".<sup>62</sup>

The literature relating to the body of knowledge is roughly summarized by G. M. Smith: "Clearly, therefore, when this study suggests that women receive discriminatory treatment in pay and promotion, such findings can hardly be called news".<sup>63</sup>

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<sup>61</sup>E. F. Baker, loc. cit., 427.

<sup>62</sup>Ibid., 400, quoting J. L. Davis, "Safeguarding the Mothers of Tomorrow", Gazette, Colorado Springs, November 5, 1922.

<sup>63</sup>G. M. Smith, Help Wanted - Female, (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University, Institute of Management and Labor Relations), 78.



## HYPOTHESES

A number of relationships have been suggested by the literature, and it is the intention of this investigation to test those relationships.

The basic model outlining the factors influencing an individual woman's decision as to whether or not to seek employment has been discussed previously in detail, and is illustrated in Chapter II, on page 22. This model relates to the one devised by Sonia Gold<sup>64</sup> which is illustrated in Chapter II, on page 19. Although the Gold model has been established on a macro level, it is possible to relate her concept of individual goals to the concept of internal factors. It is similarly possible to relate her concept of social goals to that of external factors. To a great extent we are dealing with the attitudes of individuals, which in sum, make up the social goals of a community. The technology of our society has been continually changing, and is demanding an increased participation rate for professional workers.

It is then the basic hypothesis of this study that the internal factors and the external factors, as defined previously, operate in such a manner as to restrict the labour force participation rates for female graduates of university business programs.

For the purpose of subsidiary hypotheses, this study also is

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<sup>64</sup>Sonia Gold, loc. cit.



intended to validate and rank the components of the internal and external factors. These are as follows:

#### Positive Internal Factors

1. Personal needs of the individual that can be satisfied through gainful employment.
2. The need for individual income, greater family income, and special wants such as housing.
3. The influence of university education.
4. The environment of the individual: influence of the mother's employment history, the father's job status, and the size of the home town.

#### Negative Internal Factors

1. The number and ages of children.
2. The requirement of the husband's co-operation, and the choice of mates harmonious in this context.
3. The problem of lower wage scales.
4. Lack of reasons for working, for example, the husband's income.

#### External Factors

1. Absentee and turnover rates.
2. Problems of supervision and promotion.
3. The lack of social acceptance of female workers, the basic male preferences, and the problem of underemployment.





## CHAPTER IV

### RESEARCH STRATEGY AND TECHNIQUES

The research method used in this study is the survey method. Specifically, it involves the use of two questionnaires. The first, designed primarily to measure and evaluate the internal factors was sent to all females who received Bachelor of Commerce degrees from Canadian universities for the period of time 1960 to 1969 inclusive. The mailing list used in this case was compiled with the co-operation of the Alumni Associations of the various universities across Canada that offer undergraduate degrees in business. The list of the universities was obtained from Career Outlook,<sup>65</sup> a publication of the Department of Manpower and Immigration.

The second questionnaire was sent to all industries, businesses, and institutions across Canada which recruit on Canadian university campuses for university business graduates. The mailing list for this questionnaire was derived from the Directory of Employers,<sup>66</sup> published also by the Department of Manpower and Immigration.

It was decided to use the questionnaire approach because this is the only practical method of gaining the information desired.

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<sup>65</sup> Canada, Department of Manpower and Immigration, Career Outlook, 1968-1969, (Ottawa: Manpower Information and Analysis Branch, Program Development Service, Department of Manpower and Immigration).

<sup>66</sup> Canada, Department of Manpower and Immigration, Directory of Employers Offering Employment to New University Graduates 1969-1970, (Ottawa: Manpower Information and Analysis Branch, Program Development Service, Department of Manpower and Immigration).



Basically, research in the field of women's employment has followed two patterns. The first is the questionnaire approach, which is followed here. The second relates to research based on official government statistics, such as those based on the census data, or published by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. Because we are interested in a specific group of females, the first approach is the only one feasible.

The two questionnaires themselves are outlined in Appendixes A and B. They were mailed individually<sup>67</sup> to the university business graduates and to the business firms, with a covering letter explaining the purposes of the research project. Unfortunately, it was not possible to send out the covering letter on university stationery, which could have possibly improved the appearance of the questionnaires and the returns. However, to assist in obtaining responses, business reply envelopes with prepaid postage were included with each questionnaire.

The method of data analysis tends to be rather simple. The results of the questionnaire are tabulated in Appendix C. Other questions are cross-analysed simply by the use of percentages. No attempt is made to use any type of regression analysis, because it is not needed to interpret the data. A simple percentage type of analysis provides the required information in the most direct and

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<sup>67</sup> Fifty-three of the questionnaires to the female university graduates were mailed directly by the universities involved, as their policy was not to release mailing lists.



useful form.

The questionnaires received were coded and the data recorded on punched cards. The tabulation of the entire questionnaire was done using the SPSS program (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). In similar fashion, the SPSS program was used to allow for the cross-tabulation between selected items of the various questionnaires.

The basic information collected has been designed to correlate with the format outlined in Chapter II on Problem Analysis, and with the hypotheses suggested earlier. In the introductory stages of the first questionnaire, the first section, questions one to sixteen deal with personal data, and are completely objective. The second section, questions seventeen to thirty-nine, deal with working experience. This includes factual questions about absenteeism and turnover, but it basically asks for opinions. The questionnaire seeks to determine reasons for employment. It questions the attitudes of the husbands and the wives' reaction to these attitudes. It attempts to derive their opinions on possible discrimination in attempting to obtain employment. It asks for their opinions on male and female supervisors. The final question asks them to look into the future and try to predict what they would do under various combinations of family responsibility and husbands' income levels.

The second questionnaire is basically much shorter and much simpler than the first. It simply undertakes to ask employers whether they would hire female university business graduates, for



what types of positions, and the reasons for doing, or not doing so. They are asked to indicate problems they have had with women workers, and to rate them on the questions of absenteeism and turnover.

Because the age group involved covers only a ten year period, it is necessary to combine certain factual questions with those of attitudes and opinions. Attitudes, and values, in their own right play an important role in the decision-making process as to whether or not to seek employment.

The basic selection of the topic restricted the population to females. Because it was designed to study educated women in the field of business, the population was then further defined to be those females who have received undergraduate degrees in business from Canadian universities. The time period chosen was 1960 to 1969 inclusive. This was considered to be sufficiently long to provide a good cross-section of ages, experience, and marital status. Because of the small number of graduates in this category before 1960, and the problem of university alumni offices of lost addresses and name changes, the value of extending the survey period prior to 1960 would be marginal. A 100% survey was done of this population.

The other objective of this study was to determine the reactions of the business community to this type of employee. The most logical group was those businesses that actively recruit university business graduates across Canada. A 100% survey was done on this population.





The two questionnaires themselves were varied. A number of factual questions and a number of attitude or opinion questions were asked. Some of the questions were also open-ended, allowing for additional explanations.

The questionnaires were designed to be confidential, so as to enhance a completely honest and objective response. There was no requirement for either the names of the individuals or the firms involved to be indicated in any way.



## CHAPTER V

### ANALYSIS

Just to review, the basic theoretical framework used in this study is outlined by the model which appeared in Figure 5, page 25. Although this model has been discussed, it would be of value at this point to review the basic concepts that are used:

#### Concepts

- (1) Female Commerce Graduates: This concept is defined as being all females who have received university business degrees from Canadian universities for the period 1960 to 1969 inclusive.
- (2) Labour Force Participation Rates: This is the number of women of any specified age group who are part of the labour force, expressed as a percentage of the total number of women in that age group, within the population.
- (3) Employer Group: This concept refers to the group of prospective employers who recruit on Canadian university campuses for university business graduates.
- (4) Internal Factors: This concept can be defined as the combination of reasons affecting an individual's decision to seek, or not to seek, employment. In this would be included items such as income, family responsibilities, education, and number and ages of children.
- (5) External Factors: This concept relates to the attitudes of employers towards the hiring and utilization of female workers. It includes objective factors such as absentee and turnover rates, as



well as employer attitudes towards female employees.

(6) Under-employment: This is defined as an employee working at a job that does not require the training held by the employee.

(7) Labour Force: This is defined as the number of men and women, at a given point in time, who are willing to work.

# I Response

The most important point at which to begin an analysis of a questionnaire is to discuss the total response. In the first questionnaire, mailed to the female university business graduates, the following response was received:

Questionnaires mailed	423	
Lost addresses	<u>23</u>	400
Errors on lists		<u>3</u>
		397
Responses that were valid		<u>178</u>
Percentage response		44.8% (42.0%)

For the second questionnaire, that was sent to those businesses and institutions that recruit actively on Canadian university campuses for business graduates, the following response was received:

Questionnaires mailed	273	
Incorrect addresses	<u>1</u>	272
Requests to be deleted		<u>4</u>
		268
Responses that were valid		<u>129</u>
Percentage response		48.2% (47.3%)



It should be noted that all of the universities contacted were not willing to provide mailing lists. Of the thirty-four universities listed in Career Outlook,<sup>68</sup> twenty-five provided mailing lists, including three universities that agreed to mail the questionnaires themselves. An additional five universities had no graduates. Of the remaining four universities, two refused the requests for assistance, and two universities did not reply at all to the requests.

The total number of female university business graduates, by year, as given by the Canada Year Book,<sup>69</sup> with the corresponding questionnaire replies, is as follows:

	Number of Female Graduates	Questionnaire Returns
1960	45	8
1961	60	14
1962	52	23
1963	47	6
1964	65	20
1965	53	14
1966	67	18
1967	96	17
1968	86	20
1969	80 (estimated)	36
Other	---	2
	651	178

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<sup>68</sup>Canada, Department of Manpower and Immigration, Career Outlook, loc. cit.

<sup>69</sup>Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Industry, Trade and Commerce, Canada Year Book, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1961 to 1969). Note: the 1970 Canada Year Book is not available at this time, hence figures for 1969 are estimated.





A breakdown of the number of graduates from each university and the number of responses from each university is indicated in Appendix D, Table 28.

The basic pattern followed by this analysis is to study the sections of the two questionnaires that relate specifically to the items encompassed by the internal factors and the external factors. Following this section, the more general aspects of the questionnaire are reviewed.

#### POSITIVE INTERNAL FACTORS

#### II Personal Needs that are Satisfied Through Employment

This has been considered to be one of the positive internal factors. There are a number of personal needs and goals that can be satisfied through employment. In this context the hierarchy of needs developed by Maslow<sup>70</sup> was previously reviewed. Ignoring the income aspects of security and survival, employment of a woman may satisfy her various social needs, provide a certain degree of autonomy and independence, and provide for self-esteem. For single women, the income provides for security and survival. For married women, the income aspects are discussed in the immediately following section.

The data for this section are provided basically by question 38 in the first questionnaire. The female business graduates were asked to indicate their reasons for working. The results are

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<sup>70</sup>E. H. Schein, loc. cit.



reproduced in Table 1:

Table 1  
Reasons for Working

	Number of Times Checked	Number of First Choices
1. Want to use abilities.....	129	33
2. Enjoy the challenge.....	123	29
3. Want to use education.....	117	14
4. Want to develop skills.....	83	3
5. Want to avoid boredom.....	82	9
6. Want to have a 'career'.....	74	13
7. Want to earn money for basics...	73	26
8. Want to avoid being dependent on others.....	70	7
9. Want to do more than housework..	68	2
10. Want to have 'nice' things.....	66	6
11. Want recognition.....	65	3
12. Want to make friendships.....	64	1
13. Want to contribute to the community.....	57	4
14. Want to be helpful to others....	56	3
15. Want to save to buy a house.....	49	6
16. Want to avoid loneliness.....	45	0
17. Other.....	16	9

The answers checked most frequently related to a desire to use abilities, to enjoy the challenge of working, and to use their education. From this information, it would appear as though the most basic reason for employment is that of obtaining self-esteem, or self-actualization.

On the basis of a list of first choices, use of abilities and the challenge aspect again are rated at the top. Following these, however, is the desire to earn money for basics. It would appear that income is not generally an important factor, but that for a



substantial number of individuals, it is a prime reason for working.

Those categories of social needs, such as desire to avoid loneliness, to make friendships, appear far down in the list of reasons for working.

### III Income

The desire for a greater personal or family income has also been identified as a positive internal factor. However, in reference to Table 1 in Section II above, it would appear as though it is an important factor for a limited number of the survey population. In this table, the desire to earn money for basics and the desire to buy a house scored very low. However, the desire and the need for a greater income, whether it is individual or family income is certainly a major factor in women's employment. If a girl is single, it is a necessity that she must, under normal circumstances, work for her own maintenance. However, when a girl is married, it is then necessary to consider family income, and to investigate whether or not the income of the husband has any effect on her decision as to whether or not to be employed. Table 2 indicates a relationship between the income of the husband and whether or not the girl has worked continuously since university graduation.



Table 2

Effect of Husbands' Incomes on the Continuous  
Employment of the Wives

Husband's Salary	Have Worked Continuously Since Graduation		
	Yes (%)	No (%)	Part-time (%)
1. Under \$6,000	9 (69.2)	4 (30.8)	0 (0)
2. \$6,001 - \$8,000	4 (57.1)	1 (14.3)	2 (28.6)
3. \$8,001 - \$10,000	10 (43.5)	10 (43.5)	3 (13.0)
4. \$10,001 - \$12,000	11 (55.0)	9 (45.0)	0 (0)
5. Over \$12,000	7 (17.5)	31 (77.5)	2 (5.0)
Total	41 (39.8)	55 (53.4)	7 (6.8)

Table 2 indicates a fairly consistent relationship, with the exception of the fourth salary category. The higher the salary level of the husband, the lower is the percentage of the wives that have worked continuously since graduation. It is particularly obvious in two categories. Where the husband is earning under \$6,000.00, 69.2% of the wives have been employed continuously. Where the husband is earning over \$12,000, only 17.5% of the wives have been employed continuously since university graduation.

Because income is often generally related to education, it is of interest to compare the level of education attained by the husband with the opinion of the wives as to whether or not they feel that they have achieved a satisfactory level of employment.





In similar fashion, it is evident from Table 3 that the lower the level of formal education achieved by the husband, the higher is the job satisfaction achieved by the wife. If education can be generally equated with income, then it is evident that the wife is more satisfied with her job when the husband's earning power is less, possibly because of a more substantial contribution being made to the family income.

Table 3

Effect of Husbands' Educations on  
Wives' Job Satisfaction

Husband's Education Level	Wife Reports Satisfactory Level of Employment			
	Yes	(%)	No	(%)
1. Public School	2	(100.0)	0	(0)
2. High School	6	(66.7)	3	(33.3)
3. Some University	11	(64.7)	6	(35.3)
4. University Degree	21	(53.8)	18	(46.2)
5. Graduate Degree	13	(50.0)	13	(50.0)
Total	53	(57.0)	40	(43.0)

The final section of information relating to the income factor is based on the table outlined in Appendix C. This information is basically that contained in question number 39 in the first questionnaire.



This question was designed to integrate both factual answers, and future predictions. It asked the question as to whether or not the female university business graduates had worked, or would work, under various combinations of children and husband's income. Regardless of which family situation is selected, the number of women who would work, or would want to work, decreases as the income of the husband decreases. However, it should be noted here that while income is very definitely a factor, it is much less important than that of the number and ages of children. This aspect will be discussed in detail in Section VI of this Chapter.

#### IV The Influence of University Education

The evaluation of this factor is in many ways outside the scope of this questionnaire, mainly because it is dealing with a population that has a standard level of education. This level of education, that is, a university degree, is higher than that of the society as a whole. The population responding to this questionnaire does not provide for any data for women other than for those who have received undergraduate university business degrees. However, based on the data supplied by the first questionnaire, 129 of the women were employed full time, seven were employed part time, and forty-one were not employed at the time the survey was made. These figures result in a labour force participation rate of 76.3%. (In fact, this participation rate could be even higher. The data did not provide figures on those graduates who were unemployed, but looking for work.



People in this category would be included in the participation rates.) In 1968, statistics published by the Department of Labour<sup>71</sup> established the labour force participation rate for all women in Canada aged 20-24 at 58.4%, and aged 25-34 at 35.6%. Similarly, in 1961, the labour force participation rates for female university graduates in Canada were 64.3% for women aged 20-24, and 43.9% for women aged 25-34.<sup>72</sup>

The participation rates for this sample group compare very favourably to the participation rates of other groups of women. The effects of higher education on labour force participation rates are evident in the statistics published by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics and the Department of Labour. The data provided by this survey reinforce the information that women with university degrees have higher labour force participation rates than those without university training. They would also seem to indicate that the survey group has a higher labour force participation rate than female university graduates in general. Part of this difference would certainly be related to the time difference between statistics published in 1961 and this 1970 data, reflecting the general trend in increased participation rates by women. A certain portion of this difference may also relate to the fact that a business degree is a

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<sup>71</sup>Canada, Women's Bureau, Department of Labour, Women in the Labour Force, Ottawa: 1969, 9.

<sup>72</sup>Sylvia Ostry, The Female Worker in Canada, Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1968, Dominion Bureau of Statistics 1961 Census Monograph Programme, page 30.



type of professional training, and is very job oriented. The type of girl selecting a university program in business may therefore be one who is more career oriented, and embarks on a training program with a specific career goal in mind.

#### V The Environment of the Individual

In the survey of the literature on the field of women's employment, it was suggested that the size of town in which a girl was raised would have an influence on her future employment. Because of cultural and social factors, girls raised in rural areas would be less likely to work than those raised in urban communities. The size of the town in which the girls were raised was related to the questions of whether or not they were currently employed, and whether or not they had been continuously employed since graduating from university. The results are reproduced in Table 4.

The results of this analysis tend to lead to the exact opposite conclusion. A higher percentage of girls raised on farms have worked continuously than have girls raised in large cities. Similarly, a higher percentage of girls raised on farms are currently employed than are the girls who were raised in large cities. In fact, the percentage employed currently, and the percentage of girls who have worked continuously since graduation, tend to decrease as the size of their home community increases.





Table 4

Relationship Between Size of Town and Female  
Graduates' Employment Histories

Size of Town	Worked Continuously Since University Graduation					
	Yes	(%)	No	(%)	Part-time	(%)
1. Farm	7	(63.6)	2	(18.2)	2	(18.2)
2. 0 - 10,000	26	(61.9)	14	(33.3)	2	(4.8)
3. 10,001 - 50,000	8	(53.3)	6	(40.0)	1	(6.7)
4. 50,001 - 100,000	9	(64.3)	5	(35.7)	0	(0)
5. Over 100,000	45	(48.9)	43	(46.7)	4	(4.3)
Total	95	(54.6)	70	(40.2)	9	(5.2)

Size of Town	Presently Employed					
	Yes	(%)	No	(%)	Part-time	(%)
1. Farm	9	(81.8)	0	(0)	2	(18.2)
2. 0 - 10,000	30	(73.2)	11	(26.8)	0	(0)
3. 10,001 - 50,000	11	(73.3)	2	(13.3)	2	(13.3)
4. 50,001 - 100,000	10	(71.4)	4	(28.6)	0	(0)
5. Over 100,000	66	(71.0)	24	(25.8)	3	(3.2)
Total	126	(72.4)	41	(23.6)	7	(4.0)



The literature survey also raised the argument that the possibility of a girl working was directly related to the amount of prestige and status of the job held by her father. The first questionnaire did indeed provide for a breakdown of the type of job held by the girls' fathers, and also provided information on the fathers' levels of educational training. The number of types of jobs were divided into nine general categories. These categories were then related to the two basic questions, that of whether or not the girls were currently employed, and whether or not they had been continuously employed since university graduation. The level of education held by the fathers was also related to these two basic questions. The analysis of the type of job held by the fathers provided no basic trends or information. However, the education level of the fathers did tend to indicate that, with some exceptions, the lower the level of education of the father, the more likely is the girl to have worked continuously since university graduation.

There also was a slight trend that indicated that the possibility of a girl being currently employed also had an inverse relationship with the level of education held by the father. The suggestions presented in the literature survey do not appear to be related to the study group of female university business graduates. The data are presented in the Appendix D, Table 30 and Table 31.

It has also been suggested in the literature survey by L. D. Eyde<sup>73</sup> that the example set by a girl's mother in working would act

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<sup>73</sup>L. D. Eyde, loc. cit.



as a positive internal factor, and result in a higher labour force participation rate. The question was asked as to whether or not the girl's mother had ever worked. The answer to this question was related to the two basic questions as to whether or not the girl had worked continuously since university graduation, and whether or not she was currently employed. The results are in Table 5.

Table 5

Relationship Between Employment Histories of the  
Female Business Graduates and their Mothers

Did the Mother Ever Work	The Female Business Graduate Has Worked Continuously Since University Graduation					
	Yes	(%)	No	(%)	Part-time	(%)
Yes	69	(49.3)	62	(44.3)	9	(6.4)
No	26	(72.2)	10	(27.8)	0	(0)
Total	95	(54.0)	72	(40.9)	9	(5.1)

Did the Mother Ever Work	The Female Business Graduate is Currently Employed					
	Yes	(%)	No	(%)	Part-time	(%)
Yes	97	(69.8)	36	(25.9)	6	(4.3)
No	31	(83.8)	5	(13.5)	1	(2.7)
Total	128	(72.7)	41	(23.3)	7	(4.0)



These figures in Table 5 indicate that the exact reverse relationship is true. 72.2% of the girls whose mothers had never worked had been continuously employed, as compared to only 49.3% of the girls whose mothers had worked. Similarly, 83.8% of the girls whose mothers had never worked were currently employed, while only 69.8% of the girls whose mothers had worked were currently employed. It would appear as though the influence of having had a working mother is of no relevance in the decisions of the daughters relating to employment.

#### NEGATIVE INTERNAL FACTORS

##### VI The Number and Ages of Children

The first and most important negative internal factor relates to the number and ages of children in the family. The presence of young children in the home often prevents a mother from working. A basic role conflict exists between the desires for employment and the desire to be a mother to the children.

The most basic evidence of this role conflict is presented in Question 19 in the first questionnaire, which is outlined in Appendix C. If we assume, for example, that the husband's income is in the \$10,000 to \$20,000 range, we can see the influence of the presence of young children. If there were no children in the family, 90.9% of the women state that they would want to work. The presence of one child under the age of two years reduces this percentage to 20.2%. The presence of two children in this age group reduces the rate even further to 14.9%. However, as the children become older,





more and more women express a desire to return to work. If the children are in the age grouping between two and four years, 25.9% would want to work. If children were in the four to six year age group, 32.5% would want to work. At ages six to twelve the rate increases to 60.7%, and at ages thirteen to nineteen it increases even further to 71.7%. This similar trend is equally noticeable in the other two categories of the husbands' salaries, that is, under \$10,000 and over \$20,000.

Marital status is basically related to the presence of children. Of the single girls responding to the questionnaire, 98.6% were currently employed. Of the married women responding to the questionnaire, only 53.9% were currently employed. While the figures for widowed, divorced, and separated women are quite small, it is also significant in that 100% of them were currently employed. However, it is essential to realize that the marital factor includes both the aspects of income and children. The single, widowed, divorced, and separated women must work because of their need of income. They are free from restraints on their desire to work because, at least in the case of single women, of the absence of children.

## VII Co-operation of the Husband

The second negative internal factor relates to the husband. The co-operation of the husband is a very definite requirement for most married women to be able to work. However, the suggestion was



made by L. D. Eyde<sup>74</sup> that a conflict between husband and wife over this point is minimal, because women with strong desires to work tend to select mates who are in agreement with their wishes. Question 19 in the first questionnaire evaluates the wives' opinions of their husbands' attitudes. It is important to note that 46.7% of the married women stated that their husbands were strongly in favour of them working; 25.2% were moderately in favour; 15.9% were neutral; only 8.4% were moderately opposed, and only 3.7% were strongly opposed. The married female university business graduates are receiving very strong support from their husbands as to their employment.

One other factor that is also of interest at this point is that these university graduates strongly tend to select husbands that have also received a considerable amount of university training. 71.4% of the husbands have at least a university undergraduate degree, and 88.5% of the husbands have at least attended a university.

Although it is evident from the data presented above, the husbands involved are giving their wives their support in seeking employment. One important aspect, however, is to determine exactly what effect the attitude of the husband with respect to the wife's employment does actually have. Table 6 presents one approach to this question.

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<sup>74</sup>L. D. Eyde, loc. cit.



Table 6

Effect of Husband's Attitude  
on Wife's Employment

Wife Would Work	Husband's Attitude to Wife Working				
	Strongly Opposed	Moderately Opposed	Neutral	Moderately in Favour	Strongly in Favour
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
Yes	24 (15.9)	84 (55.6)	135 (90.6)	138 (94.5)	145 (98.6)
No	127 (84.1)	67 (44.4)	14 (9.4)	8 (5.5)	2 (1.4)

If the husband was strongly opposed to his wife working, then 84.1% of the girls would not work. If the husband was moderately opposed, then 44.4% of the girls would not work. This trend continues to the extreme whereby only 1.4% of the girls would not work if the husband was strongly in favour of their working.

The importance of the husband's attitude is also demonstrated in Table 7, which relates this attitude to the fact of whether or not the wife is currently employed.



Table 7

Effect of Husband's Attitude on  
Wife's Current Employment

Wife is Currently Employed	Husband's Attitude to Wife Working				
	Strongly Opposed	Moderately Opposed	Neutral	Moderately in favour	Strongly in favour
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
Yes	0 (0)	3 (33.3)	6 (35.3)	11 (40.7)	39 (79.6)
No	4 (100)	6 (66.7)	10 (58.8)	11 (40.7)	10 (20.4)
Part- time	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (5.9)	5 (18.6)	0 (0)

These results reveal even more dramatically the importance of the husband's attitude. Not one of the girls is working who has a husband that is strongly opposed to her employment. Even when the husband is moderately opposed, only 33.3% of the wives are currently employed. This trend continues as the attitude of the husband becomes more favourable to his wife's employment. In the example where the husband is strongly in favour of his wife working, 79.6% of the women are currently employed.

Although data for part-time employment have been included in many of the tables, the numbers involved are so small that the results are not significant.

The attitude of the husband has to be one of the most important factors in determining the labour force participation rates for





female university business graduates who are married.

### VIII Wage Scales

To a great extent, it is beyond the scope of this study to fully examine the negative internal factor of low wages. However, some limited information is available which might at least assist in the analysis of this factor. Table 8 presents the salary ranges reported by the female graduates.

Table 8

#### Salaries Reported by Female Business Graduates

Salary Range	No.	(%)
Under \$6,000	22	(15.7)
\$6,000 to \$8,000	42	(30.0)
\$8,001 to \$10,000	40	(28.6)
\$10,001 to \$12,000	25	(17.9)
Over \$12,000	11	(7.9)

Certainly, a number of the graduates have been able to attain relatively high salaries, with 25.8% of the girls earning over \$10,000. However, it is also of interest that 15.7% are also earning salaries under \$6,000 per year. The only direct comparison available is with the salaries of the husbands. As an example, 58.2% of the husbands were earning over \$10,000 per year. This tends



to indicate slightly higher salaries for male employees, but is not completely applicable because the husbands' occupations cover a wide variety of areas.

#### IX Lack of Reasons for Working

It has been previously mentioned that the presence of children in a family situation, low wage scales, and a negative attitude by the husband all provide reasons for not working. However, a number of additional negative internal factors come into force here.

Question 18 in the first questionnaire asked all those graduates who had not worked continuously since university graduate to rank the reasons behind their actions. This information is provided in detail in Appendix D, Table 32.

Without question, the single most important reason was the presence of young children. The third most important reason indicated also relates to the same problem, that is, they stopped employment due to pregnancy. The second most important reason, however, relates to the basic problem facing women seeking employment in the world of business. They were unable to find good jobs available. Following these three crucial reasons were other factors such as extended holidays, lack of a need to work, and the movement of the husband from the job area.

One of the most basic reasons for a married woman not working is the provision of an adequate family income by the husband. This aspect was discussed previously with reference to the data in



Appendix C regarding question 39, in the first questionnaire, and to Table 2. Table 9 relates the income level of the husband to the fact of whether or not the wife is currently employed.

These data provide us with a general trend. Where the husband is earning under \$6,000 per year, 76.9% of the wives are employed. However, when the husband is earning over \$12,000 per year, only 30.8% of the wives are currently employed, on a full time basis.

Table 9

Effect of Husband's Salary Level  
on Wife's Current Employment

Wife is Currently Employed	Husband's Salary Level					
	Under \$6,000	\$6,000 to \$8,000	\$8,001 to \$10,000	\$10,001 to \$12,000	Over \$12,000	
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
Yes	10 (76.9)	4 (57.1)	16 (69.6)	13 (65.0)	12 (30.8)	
No	3 (23.1)	3 (42.9)	5 (21.7)	5 (25.0)	25 (64.1)	
Part- time	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (8.7)	2 (10.0)	2 (5.1)	

A further approach is also possible with regard to the effects of the husbands' incomes. The question was asked of the graduates as to whether or not they would want to work if their husband was neutral towards the concept. The answers to this question have been separated so as to provide the answers for the married graduates. Their answers to this question have in turn been related to the



current salaries of their husbands, and reproduced in Table 10.

Table 10

Effects of Husband's Salary  
Level and Attitude

If Husband's Attitude to Wife's Employment was Neutral, Wife Would Want to Work	Husband's Salary Level				
	Under \$6,000	\$6,000 to \$8,000	\$8,001 to \$10,000	\$10,001 to \$12,000	Over \$12,000
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
Yes	13 (100.0)	7 (100.0)	19 (90.5)	15 (88.2)	29 (85.3)
No	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (9.5)	2 (11.8)	5 (14.7)

Again, a very definite trend is evident. If the husband's salary was under \$8,000, then 100% of the wives would work if their husband's attitude was neutral. However, the trend continues to the point that 85.3% of these married graduates would work if their husbands were earning over \$12,000 per year. Additional data have been produced in a similar fashion, with the first part of the analysis being changed to reflect the married graduates' opinions when their husbands were moderately in favour of their wives working. These data are reproduced in Appendix D, Table 33. Again, the identical trend is evident, in that the percentage of women willing to work declines as their husbands' incomes increase.

It was also possible to introduce the factor of the level of education held by the husbands. Because of the close relationship





between income and education, this is basically a repeat of the analysis that has been done on the effects of the husbands' incomes, but from a slightly different point of view. The level of education attained by the husbands was related to two basic questions concerning their wives' employment: first, had they worked continuously since university graduation, and second, are they currently employed. These data are reproduced in Table 11.

The trend in Table 11 is very pronounced. The higher the education level attained by the husband, the less likely it is that the married female university business graduate has worked full time since university graduation. For example, 80.0% of the girls whose husbands were only high school graduates had worked full time since university graduation. However, only 27.3% of the girls whose husbands had graduate university degrees had worked full time since their own university graduation.

It is also evident that the higher the level of education attained by the husband, the less likely it is that the married female university business graduate is currently employed. For example, 100.0% of the girls whose husbands had only public school education are working full time currently, as opposed to only 37.5% of the girls working currently whose husbands had university graduate degrees.



Table 11

Effect of Husband's Education Level  
on Wife's Employment History

Wife Worked Since University Graduation	Husband's Education Level				
	Public School No. (%)	High School No. (%)	Some University No. (%)	University Degree No.	Graduate Degree
Yes	1 (50.0)	8 (80.0)	8 (44.4)	17 (40.5)	9 (27.3)
No	1 (50.0)	2 (20.0)	8 (44.4)	21 (50.0)	23 (69.7)
Part-time	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (11.1)	4 (9.5)	1 (3.0)
Wife Currently Employed					
Yes	2 (100.0)	9 (90.0)	13 (72.2)	21 (50.0)	12 (37.5)
No	0 (0)	1 (10.0)	4 (22.2)	17 (40.5)	19 (59.4)
Part-time	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (5.6)	4 (9.5)	1 (3.1)

## EXTERNAL FACTORS

X Absentee and Turnover Rates

In the literature survey, it was noted that one of the most severe obstacles faced by women in their search for employment was that their reliability was diminished because of high absentee rates and high turnover rates. Turnover relates to the frequency of changing jobs, and absentee rates relate to periods when an employee is not present at the job.



In question six of the second questionnaire, employers were asked to indicate the types of difficulties encountered in the employment of women in staff and management training positions. This question will be analysed in detail later, but it is important to note at this point that the problem of high turnover rates was the second most important factor listed by the employers, in that 53 of the 129 respondents indicated that it was a problem. High turnover rates was the primary problem to more firms than was any other factor. Thirty-four of the firms also indicated that they had had problems with high absentee rates.

The basic information on the absentee rates and the turnover rates for the female university business graduates was recorded in the first questionnaire, questions 21 to 23. This information is recorded in the summary of the questionnaire results, in Appendix C.

It is evident from this information that the presence of children does not have a great effect on absenteeism. 94.1% of the girls responding stated that they were not absent from work in the 1969 calendar year because of illnesses of their children.

In questions seven and eight in the second questionnaire, an attempt was made to obtain a rating with regards to absentee and turnover rates between single and married women, for those women in staff and management training positions. To give a complete analysis, an attempt was also made to obtain a rating with regard to absentee and turnover rates between married women and men, again in the staff and management training positions. This rating is



recorded in Table 12.

Table 12

Employer Comparison Absenteeism and Turnover  
for Single Women, Married Women, and Men

Absenteeism	Single Women No. (%)		Men	
Married women are better than	26	(27.7)	2	(2.0)
Married women are as good as	57	(60.6)	43	(42.2)
Married women are not as good as	11	(11.7)	57	(55.6)
Turnover				
Married women are higher than	22	(22.0)	60	(58.8)
Married women are as high as	41	(41.0)	31	(30.4)
Married women are lower than	37	(37.0)	11	(10.8)

It is evident from this rating that the firms involved do consider married women to be more favourable employees both in terms of absentee rates and in terms of turnover rates. It is also evident that the firms involved consider men to be considerably superior employees to both married and single women, both in terms of absentee rates and turnover rates.

For comparative purposes, a breakdown was obtained, by marital status, of the total number of days of absenteeism in 1969. The data are reproduced in Table 13.





Table 13

Effect of Marital Status on  
Absentee Rates

Number of Days Absent in 1969	Marital Status				
	Single No. (%)	Married No. (%)	Widowed No. (%)	Divorced No. (%)	Separated No. (%)
0	16 (24.2)	19 (28.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (50.0)
1 - 3	25 (37.9)	28 (41.8)	0 (0)	1 (100.0)	1 (25.0)
4 - 7	16 (24.2)	12 (17.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (25.0)
8 - 12	5 (7.6)	6 (9.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Over 13	4 (6.1)	2 (3.0)	1 (100.0)	0 (0)	(0)

The information in this table indicates very little difference in terms of the number of days absent from work for married, and for single, women.

In a similar manner, data were obtained for labour force turnover rates, based on marital status. The turnover rate was based on the information supplied by the female university business graduates as to the number of jobs they had held since university graduation. The data are reproduced in Table 14.

Again, very little difference is indicated in labour force turnover rates, based on marital status. Married women have held slightly more jobs than have the single women, but the difference is extremely small. It is interesting to note that 79.4% of the



single graduates and 71.6% of the married graduates have only changed jobs once since graduating from university.

Table 14

Effect of Marital Status on  
Turnover Rates

Number of Jobs Since University Graduation	Marital Status				
	Single No. (%)	Married No. (%)	Widowed No. (%)	Divorced No. (%)	Separated No. (%)
1	31 (45.6)	39 (41.1)	0 (0)	1 (100.0)	1 (25.0)
2	23 (33.8)	29 (30.5)	1 (100.0)	0 (0)	2 (50.0)
3	12 (17.6)	19 (20.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
4	2 (2.9)	6 (6.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
5 or more	0 (0)	2 (2.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (25.0)

# XI Problems of Supervision and Promotion

There exist, within the field of women's employment certain problems relating to supervision and promotion. Because promotion of a woman university graduate could also mean that she is being placed in a supervisory position, the two areas are thus related. The basic problem suggested by the literature survey is that there seems to be a reluctance to promote women in business, and that secondly, no one likes to have a woman supervisor.

Question twenty-four in the first questionnaire revealed the information that 60.2% of the graduates responding were, or had been,



in a supervisory position. (This was defined in the questionnaire as being in a position whereby recommendations were made regarding promotion and leave, with responsibility for discipline and the allocation of work). However, even with this relatively high number of the graduates having been in supervisory positions, it would appear as though there is still some reluctance in terms of promoting them. The second questionnaire asked those firms that had hired women with Bachelor of Commerce degrees, since 1960, if they had promoted any of those women to middle management positions. The response indicates a certain reluctance to promote women, in that 57.5% of those firms had not promoted these female university business graduates.

The basic problem seems to be that of supervision. The firms were asked to generally rate male supervisors as compared to female supervisors. The information reported is outlined in Table 15.

Table 15

Employer Rating of Male and  
Female Supervisors

Female Supervisors Are	Male Supervisors	
	No.	(%)
Better than	1	(1.0)
As good as	61	(59.2)
Not as good as	41	(39.8)



This indicates that 59.2% of those responding rated female and male supervisors as being equal. However, the over-all rating is higher for male supervisors. The firms were asked to indicate if female supervisors caused any difficulties within the organization. The replies are reported in Table 16.

Table 16

Difficulties Caused by  
Female Supervisors

Female Supervisors Cause Difficulties	Yes		No	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Because they are not capable	4	(5.3)	71	(94.7)
Because men do not like it	36	(42.9)	48	(57.1)
Because other women do not like it	57	(60.0)	38	(40.0)

It is important to note that in no way was there any question about the capabilities of female supervisors. It apparently was the opinion of the businesses, however, that men did not like to have female supervisors. Most interesting, however, is that 60.0% of the firms stated that women did not like to have women supervisors.

Surprisingly, this outlook is verified by the girls themselves. The female graduates were asked to compare the performance of men and women supervisors in the upper grades of their occupational field. 50.7% indicated that there was no difference, 26.0%





said that men were better, and only 3.4% said that women were better.

A further verification was obtained when the graduates were asked whether they preferred to have a male or a female supervisor. 60.1% said there was no difference, but 38.7% would prefer a male supervisor, and only 1.2% would prefer a female supervisor.

It is evident from these data that male supervisors are strongly preferred. However, some interesting information was obtained relating the preference of the girls with regard to supervisors with the question as to whether or not they had ever worked under a female supervisor. The data were recorded in Table 17.

Table 17

Effect of Previous Experience With a Woman  
Supervisor on Preference for Sex  
of Supervisor

Have Worked Under A Woman Supervisor	Prefer as Supervisor					
	Male		Female		Equal	
	No.	(%)	No.		No.	(%)
Yes	32	(32.7)	0	(0)	66	(67.3)
No	35	(46.7)	2	(2.6)	38	(50.7)
Total	67	(38.7)	2	(1.2)	104	(60.1)

The number preferring female supervisors is still insignificant. However, it does tend to indicate that the preference for male supervisors is less among those female university business



graduates who have in the past worked under a female supervisor.

It would also appear that there is a relationship between the attitudes held by the business firms regarding female supervisors, and the actual hiring practices of those firms. It may be part of a general attitude towards female employees. A relationship was obtained between the rating of male and female supervisors supplied by the firms, and the question as to whether or not they employed women in senior or middle management positions in their organizations. The results are reported in Table 18.

Table 18

Relationship Between Employer Rating of  
Supervisors and the Employer  
Hiring Practices

Are Women Employed in Senior Positions in the Organization?	Rating of Supervisors					
	Females Best		Equal		Males Best	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Yes	1	(100.0)	39	(66.1)	22	(53.7)
No	0	(0)	20	(33.9)	19	(46.3)

An interesting difference does appear. Of those firms that rated male and female supervisors as being equal, 66.1% reported that they did employ women in senior and middle management positions. However, of those firms that preferred male supervisors to female supervisors, 53.7% reported that they employed women in senior and



middle management positions.

## XII Social Acceptance

In the literature survey, it was noted that there was a deep-rooted tradition that influenced employers such that the universe of jobs was divided into "men's" and "women's" jobs. In some cases, women have been refused employment simply because they are women. There may be examples of underemployment, where women are unable to find a job that requires their university training.

The data provided by the second questionnaire indicate some differences in the employment opportunities offered to female graduates, based on the type of firm involved. The firms involved were organized into six categories. Based on these six categories, a relationship was established with two questions in the second questionnaire: first, had they hired any female commerce graduates since 1960; second, had they hired any male commerce graduates since 1960. These data are reproduced in Table 19.

It is important to note that 81.8% of the retail and service organizations reporting had hired female university business graduates since 1960. At the other end of the scale, only 28.6% of the manufacturing organizations had employed any female graduates, in the business field. It is also important to note the very high percentages of all of these organizations that have hired male university business graduates. 100.0% of the retail and service organizations had employed male graduates, and even 92.9% of the manufacturing organizations had employed male business graduates.



This information tends to reinforce the earlier suggestions that the universe is still divided into "men's" and "women's" jobs. The retail field, dealing with clothing, food, consumer items, is a major area of women's employment. However, manufacturing, a "male" type of employment, has not become involved to any great extent in the employment of female university business graduates.

Table 19

Relationship Between Type of Business  
and Employment Practices

Type of Business	Hired University Business Graduates Since 1960							
	Male				Female			
	Yes	(%)	No	(%)	Yes	(%)	No	(%)
School and university	9	(69.2)	4	(30.8)	6	(50.0)	6	(50.0)
Manufacturing	26	(92.9)	2	(7.1)	8	(28.6)	20	(71.4)
Financial, professional, government	32	(84.2)	6	(15.8)	20	(52.6)	18	(47.4)
Mining, refining, raw materials	19	(95.0)	1	(5.0)	11	(55.0)	9	(45.0)
Miscellaneous	11	(84.6)	2	(15.4)	7	(58.3)	5	(41.7)
Retail and service	11	(100.0)	0	(0)	9	(81.8)	2	(18.2)
Total	112	(88.2)	15	(11.8)	62	(49.6)	63	(50.4)





A further relationship can be established, by relating those organizations that have hired male business graduates with those that have hired female business graduates. These data are reported in Table 20.

Table 20

Relationship Between Organizations that  
Employ Both Male and Female Graduates

Employed Male University Business Graduates	Employed Female University Business Graduates			
	Yes	(%)	No	(%)
Yes	62	(56.9)	47	(43.1)
No	0	(0)	0	(0)

It is interesting to note that 100.0% of the firms that hired female university business graduates have also hired male graduates. Not one single firm reporting had hired a female business graduate without also having hired a male university business graduate. In fact, of the organizations that had not hired any female university business graduates since 1960, 74.6% of them had in fact hired male university business graduates.

The fact that there exists a definite preference for male employees is indicated by the second questionnaire. 96.5% of the organizations responding said that they would employ a girl with a Bachelor of Commerce degree, provided that she had the required



training and experience. However, when asked if they would hire female university business graduates for staff and management training positions, and asked if they would hire these graduates if they were married, the answers indicated a very definite trend towards a reluctance to employ women. These data are reported in Table 21.

Table 21

Effect of Marital Status on Business  
Employment Practices

Would Industry Employ a Female University Business Graduate for:	Marital Status							
	Single				Married			
	Yes	(%)	No	(%)	Yes	(%)	No	(%)
Staff positions	110	(97.3)	3	(2.7)	109	(95.6)	5	(4.4)
Management training positions	76	(77.6)	22	(22.4)	67	(72.8)	25	(27.2)
Total	186	(88.2)	25	(11.8)	176	(85.4)	30	(14.6)

Only 77.6% of the organizations would hire a female university business graduate for a management training position, and only 72.8% would hire the girl for the same position if she happened to be married. However, attitudes of the employers are of key importance. When asked the question "If applicants had equal qualifications, would you prefer to hire a man or a woman for staff and management training positions?", 98.9% of the firms responding stated that



they would prefer to hire a man.

However, while the rate of employment of female graduates has not been outstanding, the data indicate that, for example, 58.9% of the organizations presently employ women in senior or middle management positions. 49.6% of the firms responding had hired women with Bachelor of Commerce degrees since 1960. However, the male preference is again indicated here, because 88.2% of these same organizations had hired male Bachelor of Commerce graduates in the same period.

The problem of underemployment would also seem to be a factor here. Of the female university business graduates responding, only 51.8% indicated that they had achieved a satisfactory level of employment, based on their abilities and qualifications. Also, only 67.4% of the girls believed that their present position required that they have a university degree.

### XIII General Information

The employers responding to the second questionnaire were asked to indicate the sources of difficulties in the employment of women in staff and management training positions. They were asked, not only to indicate the problems involved, but also to rank order them in order of importance. The results are recorded in Table 22.

The reason listed by most of the businesses was turnover rates. However, it is interesting because it is a specific type of turnover, related to the fact that if a woman's husband changes jobs, or locations, then the woman must normally quit her job.



General job turnover was checked as the second most important factor. However, more firms indicated that this was the single most important factor involved.

Table 22

Employer Rating of Problems Caused by Female  
Employees in Staff and Management  
Training Positions

	Number of Times Checked	Number of First Choices
1. Turnover due to movement of husband	62	13
2. High turnover rates	53	26
3. Loss of time due to family responsibilities	50	8
4. Loss of time due to pregnancy	47	7
5. Inability to move married women	46	12
6. Problems of having women supervisors	39	9
7. High absentee rates	34	3
8. Other	12	7

The girls' opinions were obtained in a similar fashion. Those girls that believed that they had not achieved a satisfactory level of employment, in terms of their abilities and qualifications, were asked to list, and rank, the reasons. These reasons are reported in





Table 23.

Table 23

Reasons Reported by Female Graduates for Not Having  
Achieved a Satisfactory Level of Employment

	Number of Times Checked	Number of First Choices
1. Regardless of qualifications, men are preferred to women	49	27
2. Lack of job opportunities	47	17
3. Inadequate experience	39	11
4. Personal reasons	32	18
5. Requirements of jobs make it difficult to fill the position with a woman	29	2
6. Inadequate education	19	2

It is interesting to note that by far the most important reason given is that regardless of qualifications, men are preferred to women. This was checked more times than was any other factor, and was also listed as the single most important factor by more of the girls than was any other factor.

The second factor listed related to the lack of job opportunities. Because of the nature of the first factor listed, it is also quite probable that the opportunities are limited because of the sex of the applicant.



It is impossible to discuss the field of women's employment without approaching the concept of discrimination. The girls were asked if, in their opinion, they had ever been refused employment, first, because they were women, and secondly, because they were married women. Their replies are recorded in Table 24.

Table 24

Opinions of Female University Business Graduates  
on Personal Experiences of Sex Discrimination

	Yes No. (%)	No No. (%)	Possibly No. (%)	Uncertain No. (%)
Have You Ever Been Refused Employment Because You Were a Woman?	92 (52.9)	45 (25.9)	31 (17.8)	6 (3.4)
Have You Ever Been Refused Employment Because You Were Married?	22 (17.9)	80 (65.0)	15 (12.2)	6 (4.9)

It is interesting to note that 52.9% of the girls stated that they had been refused employment because they were women, and that an additional 17.8% thought there was a possibility of this happening. The relationship is not nearly as strong for the second part of the question relating to marital status, as only 17.9% of the girls felt that they had been refused employment because they were married. Even though the percentage is quite small, it does tend to indicate that there could be some small amount of discrimination against



married women, over and above that directed towards women in general.

A further variation is obtained on this aspect of discrimination based on sex. A relationship was obtained, broken down by marital status, of the responses given to the question asked as to whether or not they believed they had ever been refused employment because they were women. This information is reported in Table 25.

Table 25

Relationship Between Reported Discrimination  
Based on Sex and Marital Status

Marital Status	Refused Employment Because of Sex			
	Yes No. (%)	No No. (%)	Possibly No. (%)	Uncertain No. (%)
Single	31 (45.6)	20 (29.4)	15 (22.1)	2 (2.9)
Married	57 (57.0)	24 (24.0)	15 (15.0)	4 (4.0)
Widowed	1 (100.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Separated	1 (100.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Divorced	2 (50.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)	0 (0)
Total	92 (52.9)	45 (25.9)	31 (17.8)	6 (3.4)

The interesting aspect of this analysis is that 45.6% of the single women indicated that they had been refused employment because they were women, and that 57.0% of the married women indicated that they had been refused employment because they were women. This



difference would tend to indicate a higher level of discrimination against married women. It would appear as though certain of the married female commerce graduates were refused employment because they were married, and attributed it to refusal of employment because they were women. This apparent discrimination exists even though 70.5% of the firms responding to the second questionnaire indicated, for example, that they did offer a program of maternity leave.

It is also of interest to investigate this apparent discrimination with a built in time factor. Evidence presented in the literature survey indicates that over time, the labour force participation rate for women is increasing steadily. As more and more women become members of the labour force, it would be predicted that the barriers against women workers would be overcome. To investigate this aspect, the answers to the question asking if they had been refused employment because they were women, were broken down according to the age level of the girls involved. This information is reported in Table 26.

What is interesting about this information is that it appears to indicate that more of the recent graduates feel that they have been discriminated against than do the older graduates. From these data, it would almost appear that the amount of discrimination against women employees has increased, rather than reduced over the years. However, one part of this information that cannot be measured, is the fact that more publicity has been given to the problems





encountered by women workers in recent years. A portion of this reported higher rate of discrimination in recent years may be due to a greater awareness by the girls of the fact that some discrimination does exist.

Table 26

Relationship Between Age and Discrimination  
Based on Sex

Age	Refused Employment Because of Sex			
	Yes No. (%)	No No. (%)	Possibly No. (%)	Uncertain No. (%)
Under 20	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
20 - 24	34 (64.2)	6 (11.3)	12 (22.6)	1 (1.9)
25 - 29	34 (45.9)	24 (32.4)	14 (18.9)	2 (2.7)
30 - 34	17 (56.7)	7 (23.3)	3 (10.0)	3 (10.0)
35 or over	7 (41.2)	8 (47.1)	2 (11.8)	0 (0)
Total	92 (52.9)	45 (25.9)	31 (17.8)	6 (3.4)

This similar trend is also evident if a relationship is established between answers given to the questions of discrimination based on sex and marital status, and the year of graduation of the female commerce graduate. This information is reported in Table 27 and Table 28.



Again, the trend seems to indicate a higher level of discrimination in recent years, both on a basis of sex, and on the basis of marital status.

A large quantity of information has been obtained by the two questionnaires. This analysis has utilized selected portions of the data collected. For reference purposes, the total responses to each of the questionnaire items are recorded in Appendix C.

Table 27

Relationship Between the Years of University  
Graduation and Reported Discrimination  
Based on Sex

Year of University Graduation	Refused Employment Because of Sex			
	Yes No. (%)	No No. (%)	Possibly No. (%)	Uncertain No. (%)
1960	4 (50.0)	3 (37.5)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)
1961	5 (35.7)	4 (28.6)	3 (21.4)	2 (14.3)
1962	11 (47.8)	7 (30.4)	3 (13.0)	2 (8.7)
1963	1 (16.7)	3 (50.0)	2 (33.3)	0 (0)
1964	11 (55.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	1 (5.0)
1965	7 (50.0)	4 (28.6)	3 (21.4)	0 (0)
1966	8 (47.1)	7 (41.2)	1 (5.9)	1 (5.9)
1967	10 (58.8)	3 (17.6)	4 (23.5)	0 (0)
1968	14 (70.0)	1 (5.0)	5 (25.0)	0 (0)
1969	20 (60.6)	8 (24.2)	5 (15.2)	0 (0)
Other	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Total	92 (52.9)	45 (25.9)	31 (17.8)	6 (3.4)



Table 28

Relationship Between the Years of University  
Graduation and Reported Discrimination  
Based on Marital Status

Year of Graduation	Refused Employment Because Married			
	Yes No. (%)	No No. (%)	Possibly No. (%)	Uncertain No. (%)
1960	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)
1961	1 (10.0)	6 (60.0)	1 (10.0)	2 (20.0)
1962	5 (27.8)	11 (61.1)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.6)
1963	0 (0)	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)
1964	2 (12.5)	12 (75.0)	2 (12.5)	0 (0)
1965	3 (25.0)	7 (58.3)	2 (16.7)	0 (0)
1966	1 (7.1)	11 (78.6)	2 (14.3)	0 (0)
1967	0 (0)	7 (58.3)	4 (33.3)	1 (8.3)
1968	3 (33.3)	4 (44.4)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)
1969	4 (20.0)	14 (70.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)
Other	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Total	22 (17.9)	80 (65.0)	15 (12.2)	6 (4.9)



## CHAPTER VI

### CONCLUSIONS

In summary, there appears to be two major themes operating throughout the field of female employment. First, most of the women feel it is their duty to stay at home when young children are present. This internal factor very effectively excludes the large majority of women from entering the labour force. The second characteristic is that employers would rather hire men than women. This problem is based upon women's responsibilities to children, pregnancy, movement of husbands, and the problem of having female supervisors. Compared to these factors, the others tend to be rather insignificant in their effects.

It is difficult to obtain an exact weighting of the internal and the external factors involved, however, based on the questionnaire results, it has been possible to rank them. It must be emphasized here that different factors come into play at different times. It is also quite evident that the factors involved can play a varying role with different individuals.

Income is one of the important positive internal factors. However, it tends to be of key importance to a certain number of individuals, and of secondary importance to the remainder of the group. In an over-all ranking of internal factors, it would have to be rated second to the general personal needs that are satisfied by employment. From information provided, it appears as though the





female university business graduates work primarily to utilize their educational training, to use their abilities, and to simply enjoy the challenge of working. The effects of the university education itself tend to produce the prime motivation for seeking employment. It has been discussed in Section IV of the Analysis that the labour force participation rates for this population are considerably above the rates for all women, and are even above the rates for all women university graduates. It would appear as though those women entering university in a business field, which is considered primarily to be a "man's job", are more intent on obtaining employment and developing a career than are women who followed other disciplines.

The environment of the individual also does serve to act as a factor in determining the employment history. However, the data suggest that such influence is very insignificant in its effect.

The most important single factor indicated by the data is that of the presence of young children in the home. Our society has not yet accepted the concept of working mothers. The girls themselves also strongly accept the opinion that when there are small children present, the place of the mother is in the home. No other single factor, in fact, no other combination of factors, has the influence to the degree that the presence of young children has.

In a marital situation, the husband also plays a key role in the wife's employment situation. The female business graduates indicated that the co-operation and the support of the husband was necessary in order for them to be employed. The corollary of this,



however, is that if a girl feels very strongly about working, she will select a mate who is relatively favourable with regard to her opinions on employment. The attitudes of the husbands that were reported by the girls tend to support this argument.

Income, in terms of specific wage levels can also serve to be a negative factor. However, because income in general is not one of the most important factors, the specific wage level tends to be a very minor factor. In fact, the evidence is strongly in support of the concept that low salaries may be a source of dissatisfaction, but not a sufficient reason for them to withdraw from the labour force.

The two external factors that appear to be most often discussed relate firstly to absentee and turnover rates, and secondly to the problems of supervision. The employers rated these as the most serious problems that they had with female employees. However, the data provided by the female university business graduates indicated very low absentee rates and very low turnover rates. The problem of supervision remains, however, in that even the girls themselves stated a strong preference for male supervisors. The businesses involved showed a preference for married women over single women in terms of absentee rates and turnover rates, yet they would be more likely to employ a single woman than a married woman in a staff or a management training position.

The most important external factor is the fact that a general preference exists with most business organizations towards the



employment of male, as opposed to female, personnel. The basic preference for male employees was demonstrated by the firms responding to the questionnaire. This factor of male preference was also listed by the girls responding to the questionnaire. It was the single most important reason for those girls that believed they had not achieved a satisfactory level of employment, in terms of their abilities and qualifications. This male preference has been extended to the point that a majority of the girls responding to the questionnaire stated that they had been refused employment because they were women. This not only applies to past graduates, but seems to be increasing, or at least, more noticeable for the most recent graduates.

The ratings of the factors in order of importance, based on the questionnaire results, are as follows:

#### Positive Internal Factors

1. Personal needs of the individual that can be satisfied through gainful employment.
2. The influence of university education.
3. The need for individual income, greater family income, and special wants such as housing.
4. The environment of the individual: influence of the mother's employment history, the father's job status, and the size of the home town.



### Negative Internal Factors

1. The number and ages of children.
2. The requirement of the husband's co-operation, and the choice of mates harmonious in this context.
3. Lack of reasons for working, for example, the husband's income.
4. The problem of lower wage scales.

### External Factors

1. The lack of social acceptance of female workers, the basic male preferences, and the problem of underemployment.
2. Absentee and turnover rates.
3. Problems of supervision and promotion.

The rating within each of the above three categories is based upon the prior analysis of the questionnaire results. In the positive internal factors, personal needs of the individual, and the influence of the university education, are definitely of great importance. Income is important, but only for a restricted number of individuals. For example, if the husband has a very low income, it becomes very important for the wife to work. The environment of the individual has only limited importance.

For the negative internal factors, without question, the most important factor is the number and ages of children. Another very important factor, however, is the co-operation of the husband. Lack of reasons for working is a rather nebulous term, and really implies the lack of positive internal factors. The problem of lower wage





scales is of minimum importance.

For the external factors, again, the greatest and most important factor is the basic preference shown by employers for male employees. Part of the reason, but only part, is based in the problems encountered by employers in terms of the absentee and turnover rates of female employees. However, these rates are for all practical purposes, not as bad in fact, at least for our survey group, as is the reaction to it by the employers. Supervision, while not necessarily a barrier to employment, does create a very difficult problem, basically because women do not like to have a woman supervisor. The only difficulty that it might create is for employment in management training positions, which might ultimately be designed to train someone for a supervisory position.

Based on the questionnaire results, the internal and the external factors have been ranked in order of importance:

1. The number and ages of children.
2. The lack of social acceptance of female workers, the basic male preferences, and the problem of underemployment.
3. The requirement of the husband's co-operation, and the choice of mates harmonious in this context.
4. Personal needs of the individual that can be satisfied through gainful employment.
5. The influence of university education.
6. Absentee and turnover rates.



7. The need for individual income, greater family income, and special wants such as housing.
8. The lack of reasons for working, for example, the husband's income.
9. The problems of supervision and promotion.
10. The environment of the individual: influence of the mother's employment history, the father's job status, and the size of the home town.
11. The problem of lower wage scales.

Within the limits discussed above, these internal and external factors determine whether or not an individual female university business graduate will become part of the labour force, and in total, determine the labour force participation rates for female graduates of university business programs.

Woytinsky's<sup>75</sup> "additional worker" theory and Long's<sup>76</sup> "discouraged worker hypothesis" have been discussed previously. These are basically economic theories, and relate to the income aspects of employment. Within the limits of income, these two theories may have some validity. However, they fail completely to account for any of the non-income factors. They ignore the strong positive internal factors that encourage women to work, even when income is not necessary.

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<sup>75</sup>W. S. Woytinsky, loc. cit..

<sup>76</sup>J. Korbel, loc. cit., 4.



Weber's<sup>77</sup> concept of a bureaucracy as the ideal type of organization is basic to any study of organizational behaviour. When dealing with modern-day employment, it is almost essential to consider it taking place within the boundaries of a bureaucratic type of organization. In several instances, women do not fit the pattern established by Weber, especially with regard to their family responsibilities. The promotion of females to supervisory positions encounters problems that Weber did not predict. One obvious area in which further research is necessary is the role of women in the formal organization, and in the informal organization structure. Weber's theories are definitely limited in this case because of the fact that the field of women's employment was ignored completely.

In a similar fashion, more research is needed in terms of role theory. In our society, an employed female automatically represents a role conflict, in that she can be divided between her job and her home responsibilities. To the extent that the attitudes and opinions of the management of large organizations object to employing females, particularly in senior administrative positions, there is also an element of role legitimation conflict.

The research by Perlman<sup>78</sup> is much more contemporary, and looks at the economic effects of women's employment, particularly in terms of the family income concept. However, the same criticism

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<sup>77</sup>Max Weber, loc. cit..

<sup>78</sup>Richard Perlman, loc. cit..



may be levied against Perlman, as it was against Woytinsky and Long. He fails completely to account for the non-economic factors. The results of this study indicate that the non-economic factors are of much more importance than are the economic factors.

It should be noted that in no case did the question of ability enter the study. The girls receive a competitive university education, and even the employers responding to the questionnaires acknowledged that lack of ability was not a factor when dealing with female graduates of university business programs.

The basic problem stems from the role of women in the society, their duties to raise children, and be subordinate to men in the family situation, to move when the husband moves, and as an extension of this, the attitude is prevalent that women should not command men at work. It is not to be taken that women are oppressed by a social value that they do not accept. In fact, the majority of women responding in this survey share in these social values. They believe it is their responsibility to stay home and raise their children. It is also evident that in a family situation, if the husband makes a good wage, then some wives are content not to work. They are also willing to give up their right to employment if their husbands are opposed to having working wives. The most important problem encountered by the employers is the problem whereby women have to leave their jobs because their husbands move. Even in the area of supervision, it is evident that women would prefer to be supervised by a man, rather than another woman. In many cases,





businesses cannot be blamed for not hiring women because their social role by definition creates additional problems for them in the world of work.

The most logical approach to begin a solution of the problems of women's employment is for the employers to become more aware of the specific types of problems associated with women workers. In many cases, for example, employers have managed to live with male employees who have problems with alcoholism and with finances. Much of the same type of co-operation could be applied to the types of problems associated with women. This approach is explained in the study by V. Klein: "From the community's point of view women are of great importance both as workers and as wives and mothers, and it would seem necessary to provide them with the facilities to perform both of these functions simultaneously and effectively so that neither their homes nor their jobs suffer unduly from this duality of role".<sup>79</sup>

One of the most immediately useful programs that could be established by industry would be the establishment of day-care centres within the plants or buildings. This could have the effect of encouraging a number of women to remain employed even though they do have small children. It would serve to provide the necessary means for caring for the children in a satisfactory manner

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<sup>79</sup>V. Klein, loc. cit., 134.



while the mother is at work. Granted, a number of women would rather stay at home and care for their children, rather than continue employment. However, it would seem to be only fair for the facilities to be available to permit them to make a free choice as to staying home or continuing employment. This lack of facilities introduces a constraint to the operations of the model introduced earlier, and limits the alternatives available through the interaction of the internal and the external factors.

There is also a need for greater responsibility on the part of management to carefully investigate the motives of each female that applies for employment. Even this study reflects the current trend to evaluate the behaviour of women workers by means of group statistics and group evaluations. They are still individuals and even though most of the women will not work under certain circumstances, there are always individuals who do not fit the generally accepted patterns. Women tend to become stereotyped in terms of high absentee and turnover rates. The group of university business graduates does not present an unduly high rate for either category, yet they are being penalized because of this opinion.

There is no question of the need for trained and qualified manpower (or womanpower) in our society. But, in order for this resource to be put to more efficient use, the basic nature of society itself must be changed. Only through a greater amount of public education is there a possibility of women being better accepted in the world of work. A more concerted effort by business



towards the solving of problems peculiar to females could provide highly satisfactory results. Maternity leave programs could assist the working mother, and would provide the firm with a reserve of qualified and experienced employees. It should not be too great a difficulty for the firm to accommodate an employee's absence for a limited period of time. We should note here the number of programs of educational leave and conferences that are open to men.

Women do present certain problems in the world of work. However, if the required effort is forthcoming, these problems can be solved by industry. Day-care centres would enable them to work, and public education, together with planning by management, would minimize the disruptive influences in the work place, and provide them with a presently under-utilized womanpower resource.

There is no doubt that discrimination does exist against women, particularly the university trained women in the field of business. Much of this is based on stereotyped ideas about women. Much of it is based on the value structure of the society, and the belief that women belong in the home raising their children. The right of free choice as to seeking employment or to stay at home is denied to women, partially because of the lack of facilities to combine the two roles, and partially because of the role legitimization conflict they face in employment.

To a great extent, the problem is basically one of lack of information, and the lack of desire to obtain the information. Many of the stereotyped ideas of businesses with regard to female



employees are not justified in fact, and many are out of date. They fail to account for the individual, and specifically fail to account for a specific class of individual, namely the female university business graduate. There is a great need for industry to obtain further factual information on women's employment. There is also need for a definite attempt on the part of industry to identify the problems that do exist, and to make rational attempts to solve them, in order to utilize this womanpower resource.

The basic problem still rests with the value system of our society. For some reason, women do not like to work for other women. This feeling is stronger among women than it is among men. Research on this problem area could no doubt go a long way in overcoming one of the major obstacles to the hiring and utilization of women in business. Further public education is also needed to refine the value system of the society. Factual information is needed on the problems and the advantages of a child being raised in day care centres as opposed to being at home during the day with his mother.

Only when this further research has been completed, and public education begun, will women, and in particular, the female graduates of university business programs, obtain equality in the search for employment.





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## APPENDICES



## APPENDIX A

### THE FIRST QUESTIONNAIRE

The first questionnaire was mailed to the female university business graduates. The actual questionnaire that was mailed out is reproduced in the following section.



UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA  
FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND COMMERCE

May 11, 1970.

Dear Madam:

Enclosed please find a questionnaire dealing with the field of women's employment. This questionnaire has been sent out to all female business graduates from Canadian universities for the period 1960 to 1969, inclusive.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the various factors that influence your decisions regarding employment. Specifically, it attempts to investigate factors influencing labour force participation rates for female graduates of university business programs.

A second questionnaire is also being forwarded to a selected group of employers who recruit on university campuses. This will evaluate employer attitudes towards the hiring and utilization of female commerce graduates.

As in any questionnaire approach, the success of the study is dependent upon the number of questionnaires returned. Your co-operation would be greatly appreciated. It is hoped that the nature of this study will be of particular interest to you.

Please be assured that all replies will be held in confidence. A stamped, self-addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

*Murray W. Brown*

Murray W. Brown.

MWB:gw  
Enc.



# QUESTIONNAIRE

## I. PERSONAL DATA

University \_\_\_\_\_

1. What age group are you in?  
 Under 20 ☐ 20-24 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35 or over ☐
2. What is your present marital status?  
 single ☐ married ☐ widow ☐ separated ☐ divorced ☐
3. In what year did you graduate with a B. Comm. degree?  
 1960 ☐ 1961 ☐ 1962 ☐ 1963 ☐ 1964 ☐  
 1965 ☐ 1966 ☐ 1967 ☐ 1968 ☐ 1969 ☐
4. In what size of town were you raised?  
 farm ☐ 0 - 10,000 ☐ 10,001 to 50,000 ☐ 50,001 to 100,000 ☐ over 100,000 ☐
5. If married, what year were you married in?  
 1960 ☐ 1961 ☐ 1962 ☐ 1963 ☐ 1964 ☐  
 1965 ☐ 1966 ☐ 1967 ☐ 1968 ☐ 1969 ☐ other ☐
6. If married, how many children do you have?  
 none ☐ one ☐ two ☐ three ☐ four or more ☐
7. In what age group are your children?  

Age 0-6	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
6-18	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
over 18	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. Are you presently employed?    yes ☐    no ☐    part-time ☐
9. If presently employed, what is your present salary range?  

under 6,000	6,000 to 8,000	8,001 to 10,000	10,001 to 12,000	over 12,000
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. If married, what is your husband's salary level?  

under 6,000	6,000 to 8,000	8,001 to 10,000	10,001 to 12,000	over 12,000
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>





11. What, if married, is your husband's highest education level?  
 public school ☐ high school ☐ some university ☐ university degree ☐ graduate degree ☐

12. If married, what is your husband's occupational group? \_\_\_\_\_

13. What was your father's highest education level?  
 public school ☐ high school ☐ some university ☐ university degree ☐ graduate degree ☐

14. What is your father's occupational group? \_\_\_\_\_

15. Did your mother ever work? yes ☐ no ☐

16. If your mother worked, please check the stages:  
 when single ☐ married, no children ☐ married, children not in school ☐ married, children in school ☐ married, children through school ☐

## II. WORKING EXPERIENCE

17. Have you worked continuously since university graduation?  
 yes, full time ☐ yes, but some part-time work ☐ no ☐

18. If you answered "no" to question 17, please rank the applicable reasons according to importance, 1. being the most important, 2. the next most important, etc.

- \_\_\_ husband's objections
- \_\_\_ presence of young children
- \_\_\_ health reasons
- \_\_\_ don't like working
- \_\_\_ don't need to work
- \_\_\_ feel wife's place is in the home
- \_\_\_ want to be an excellent homemaker
- \_\_\_ pregnancy
- \_\_\_ school
- \_\_\_ spouse moved
- \_\_\_ lack of good jobs available
- \_\_\_ extended holiday
- \_\_\_ lack of competent household help
- \_\_\_ other \_\_\_\_\_

19. If married, what is your husband's attitude towards your working?  
 strongly opposed ☐ moderately opposed ☐ neutral ☐ moderately in favor ☐ strongly in favor ☐



20. When you are married, or if you are married, would you work if your husband was:
- | strongly<br>opposed          | moderately<br>opposed        | neutral                      | moderately<br>in favour      | strongly<br>in favour        |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| yes <input type="checkbox"/> | yes <input type="checkbox"/> | yes <input type="checkbox"/> | yes <input type="checkbox"/> | yes <input type="checkbox"/> |
| no <input type="checkbox"/>  | no <input type="checkbox"/>  | no <input type="checkbox"/>  | no <input type="checkbox"/>  | no <input type="checkbox"/>  |

21. How many times in 1969 were you absent from work?
- |                            |                            |                            |                            |                                    |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 0 <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 or more <input type="checkbox"/> |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------------|

- 21- How many times in 1969 were you absent from work due to illness of children?
- |                              |                            |                            |                            |                                    |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| a 0 <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 or more <input type="checkbox"/> |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------------|

22. Total days absent from work in 1969:
- |                            |                              |                              |                               |                                     |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 0 <input type="checkbox"/> | 1-3 <input type="checkbox"/> | 4-7 <input type="checkbox"/> | 8-12 <input type="checkbox"/> | 13 or more <input type="checkbox"/> |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|

- 22- Total days absent from work in 1969 due to illness of children:
- |                              |                              |                              |                               |                                     |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| a 0 <input type="checkbox"/> | 1-3 <input type="checkbox"/> | 4-7 <input type="checkbox"/> | 8-12 <input type="checkbox"/> | 13 or more <input type="checkbox"/> |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|

23. How many different firms have you worked for since graduation?
- |                            |                            |                            |                            |                                    |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1 <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 or more <input type="checkbox"/> |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------------|

24. Do you, or have you, supervise(d) others? yes ☐ no ☐  
(that is, do you make recommendations regarding promotion and leave, are you responsible for discipline, as well as allocating work?).

25. In terms of your abilities and qualifications, do you feel that you have achieved a satisfactory level of employment? yes ☐ no ☐

26. If the answer to question 25 was "no", please rank the applicable reasons according to importance, 1. being the most important, 2. the next most important, etc.

- ☐ inadequate education
- ☐ inadequate experience
- ☐ lack of job opportunities
- ☐ requirements of jobs make it difficult to fill the position with a woman
- ☐ regardless of qualifications, men are preferred to women
- ☐ personal reasons \_\_\_\_\_

27. Have you been promoted in the last two years? yes ☐ no ☐ not applicable ☐

28. Please rate your chances for promotion in the next two years:
- |                               |                                   |                               |   |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|
| poor <input type="checkbox"/> | moderate <input type="checkbox"/> | good <input type="checkbox"/> | not applicable <input type="checkbox"/> |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|

29. If you rated your chances for promotion as "poor", please rank the applicable reasons according to importance, 1. being the most important, 2. the next most important, etc.

- ☐ inadequate education
- ☐ inadequate experience
- ☐ few opportunities exist
- ☐ problems with supervisor
- ☐ requirements of higher jobs make it difficult to fill the position with a woman
- ☐ regardless of qualifications, men are preferred to women
- ☐ a move would be required
- ☐ other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_



30. Have you ever been refused employment because you were a woman?  
 yes ☐ no ☐ possibly ☐ uncertain ☐
31. Have you ever been refused employment because you were married?  
 yes ☐ no ☐ possibly ☐ uncertain ☐
32. Does your present position require that you have a university degree?  
 yes ☐ no ☐ uncertain ☐
33. In the upper grades of your occupational field at present, how would you compare the performance of men and women?  
 (a) Non-supervisors:  
     men ☐ women ☐ the ☐ no ☐  
     better ☐ better ☐ same ☐ opinion ☐  
 (b) Supervisors:  
     men ☐ women ☐ the ☐ no ☐  
     better ☐ better ☐ same ☐ opinion ☐
34. Have you ever worked under the supervision of a woman?  
 yes ☐ no ☐
35. Have you ever worked closely with women at a similar level of employment?  
 yes ☐ no ☐
36. Have you ever worked closely with a woman subordinate?  
 yes ☐ no ☐
37. Which do you prefer?
- |             | man                      | woman                    | no difference            |
|-------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| supervisor  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| colleague   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| subordinate | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
38. Which of the following apply to you as reasons for working? (Please rank according to importance.)
- ☐ want to use education
  - ☐ want to earn money for basics
  - ☐ want to avoid boredom
  - ☐ want recognition
  - ☐ want to have "nice" things
  - ☐ want to avoid loneliness
  - ☐ want to do more than housework
  - ☐ want to develop skills
  - ☐ want to have a "career"
  - ☐ want to save to buy a house
  - ☐ want to make friendships
  - ☐ want to use your abilities
  - ☐ want to contribute to the community
  - ☐ want to be helpful to others
  - ☐ want to avoid being dependent on others
  - ☐ enjoy the challenge
  - ☐ other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_



39. The following section is to be answered by all. If you are single, or married but with no children, try to estimate, as objectively as possible, whether or not you would want to work under the conditions listed.

marital status	children	ages of children	want to work	husband's income		
				under \$10,000	\$10,000 to \$20,000	over \$20,000
married	- 0 -	--	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
married	1	0-2	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
married	2 or more	0-2	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
married	1	2-4	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
married	2 or more	2-4	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
married	1	4-6	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
married	2 or more	4-6	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
married	1 or more	6-12	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
married	1 or more	13-19	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
married	1 or more	over 19	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Additional Comments:





## APPENDIX B

### THE SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE

The second questionnaire was mailed to the group of businesses and organizations that recruit university business graduates. The actual questionnaire that was mailed out is reproduced in the following section.



UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA  
FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND COMMERCE

May 11, 1970.

Dear Sir:

Enclosed please find a questionnaire dealing with the field of women's employment. Specifically, this study is designed to evaluate factors influencing labour force participation rates for female graduates of university business programs.

This questionnaire is being forwarded to all employers listed in the 1969-1970 Directory of Employers, (published by the Department of Manpower and Immigration) who are seeking to employ university graduates in business administration and commerce. This portion of the study is attempting to determine the nature of the problems associated with female employees, and employer attitudes towards them.


A second questionnaire has also been sent to all female commerce graduates from Canadian Universities for the period 1960-1969, inclusive. This is intended to evaluate their personal attitudes towards employment.

As in any questionnaire approach, the success of the study is dependent upon the number of questionnaires returned. Your co-operation would be greatly appreciated.

Please be assured that all replies will be held in confidence. A stamped, self-addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

  
Murray W. Brown.

MWB:gw  
Enc.



# QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Please state general type of firm. \_\_\_\_\_
2. Provided that she had the required training and experience, would you employ a girl with a Bachelor of Commerce degree?      yes ☐      no ☐
3. If yes, would you hire her for:
 

(a) stenographic positions	yes <input type="checkbox"/>	no <input type="checkbox"/>
(b) staff positions	yes <input type="checkbox"/>	no <input type="checkbox"/>
(c) management training	yes <input type="checkbox"/>	no <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Would you hire a married woman with a B.Comm. degree for:
 

(a) stenographic positions	yes <input type="checkbox"/>	no <input type="checkbox"/>
(b) staff positions	yes <input type="checkbox"/>	no <input type="checkbox"/>
(c) management training	yes <input type="checkbox"/>	no <input type="checkbox"/>
5. If applicants had equal qualifications, would you prefer to hire a man or a woman for staff and management training positions?
 

man preferred <input type="checkbox"/>	woman preferred <input type="checkbox"/>
--	--
6. Please check, if applicable, which of the following have been a source of difficulty in the employment of women in staff and management training positions. (Please rank them in order of importance, 1. being the most important, 2. the next most important, etc.)
 

<input type="checkbox"/>	high absentee rates.
<input type="checkbox"/>	high turnover rates.
<input type="checkbox"/>	loss of time due to pregnancy.
<input type="checkbox"/>	loss of time due to family responsibilities.
<input type="checkbox"/>	turnover due to movement of husband.
<input type="checkbox"/>	inability to move married women.
<input type="checkbox"/>	problems of having women supervisors.
<input type="checkbox"/>	other, please specify _____
7. In this category of employment, could you rate married women to single women in terms of absentee rates and job turnover rates:
 

(1) absenteeism:	Single women
married women are better than	<input type="checkbox"/>
married women are as good as	<input type="checkbox"/>
married women are not as good as	<input type="checkbox"/>
(2) turnover:	
married women are higher than	<input type="checkbox"/>
married women are as high as	<input type="checkbox"/>
married women are lower than	<input type="checkbox"/>



8. In this category of employment, could you rate married women to men in terms of absentee rates and job turnover rates:

(1) absenteeism:

married women are better than Men ☐

married women are as good as ☐

married women are not as good as ☐

(2) turnover:

married women are higher than ☐

married women are as high as ☐

married women are lower than ☐

9. Would you rate generally male supervisors as compared to female supervisors:

female supervisors are better than Male Supervisors ☐

female supervisors are as good as ☐

female supervisors are not as good as ☐

10. Do you have a program for maternity leave in your organization? yes ☐ no ☐

11. Do female supervisors cause difficulties because

(a) they are not capable yes ☐ no ☐

(b) men do not like it yes ☐ no ☐

(c) other women do not like it yes ☐ no ☐

12. Do you presently employ women in senior or middle management positions in your organization? yes ☐ no ☐

13. Since 1960, have you hired any women with Bachelor of Commerce degrees? yes ☐ no ☐

14. Since 1960, have you hired any men with Bachelor of Commerce degrees? yes ☐ no ☐

15. If you answered yes to question 13, have any of those hired been promoted to middle management positions? yes ☐ no ☐

Additional Comments:





## APPENDIX C

### SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

#### FIRST QUESTIONNAIRE

##### I. PERSONAL DATA

##### University

Acadia University	6
Bishop's University	1
Carleton University	11
Dalhousie University	6
Loyola University	4
McMaster University	2
Mount Allison University	2
Queens University	3
St. Francis Xavier University	4
Sherbrooke University	9
Sir George Williams University	14
University of Alberta	13
University of British Columbia	17
University of Calgary	2
University of Laval	5
University of Manitoba	20
University of New Brunswick	5
University of Ottawa	7
University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon Campus	23
University of Western Ontario	6
Waterloo Lutheran University	1
Not reported	17

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178



## 1. What age group are you in?

Under 20	20-24	25-29	30-34	35 or over
0-(0%)	55-(30.9%)	74-(41.6%)	31-(17.4%)	18-(10.1%)

## 2. What is your present marital status?

single	married	widow	separated	divorced
69-(38.8%)	103-(57.9%)	1-(0.6%)	1-(0.6%)	4-(2.2%)

## 3. In what year did you graduate with a B. Comm. degree?

1960 - 8	1961 - 14	1962 - 23	1963 - 6	1964 - 20
1965 - 14	1966 - 18	1967 - 17	1968 - 20	1969 - 36

## 4. In what size of town were you raised?

farm	0 - 10,000	10,001 to 50,000	50,001 to 100,000	over 100,000
11-(6.3%)	42 - (24.0%)	15-(8.6%)	14-(8.0%)	93-(53.1%)

## 5. If married, what year were you married in?

1960 - 1	1961 - 9	1962 - 6	1963 - 7	1964 - 8
1965 - 10	1966 - 13	1967 - 16	1968 - 10	1969 - 14
other - 13				

## 6. If married, how many children do you have?

none	one	two	three	four or more
20-(33.9%)	28-(47.5%)	10-(16.9%)	1-(1.7%)	0-(0%)

## 7. In what age group are your children?

Age 0-6	1 - 25	2 - 21	3 - 4	4 - 0
6-18	1 - 9	2 - 4	3 - 1	4 - 0
over 18	1 - 1	2 - 1	3 - 0	4 - 0

## 8. Are you presently employed?

Yes	No	part-time
129-(72.9%)	41-(23.2%)	7-(4.0%)

## 9. If presently employed, what is your present salary range?

under 6,000	6,000 to 8,000	8,001 to 10,000	10,001 to 12,000	over 12,000
22-(15.7%)	42-30.0%	40-(28.6%)	25-(17.9%)	11-(7.9%)

## 10. If married, what is your husband's salary level?

Under 6,000	6,000 to 8,000	8,001 to 10,000	10,001 to 12,000	over 12,000
13-(12.6%)	7-(6.8%)	23-(22.3%)	20-(19.4%)	40-(38.8%)



11. What, if married, is your husband's highest education level?

Public school	high school	some university	university degree	graduate degree
2-(1.9%)	10-(9.5%)	18-(17.1%)	42-(40.0%)	33-(31.4%)

12. If married, what is your husband's occupational group?

Professional	55-(53.4%)	Trades	6-(5.8%)
Student	7-(6.8%)	Labour	3-(2.9%)
Teacher	9-(8.7%)	Other business	10-(9.7%)
	Business Management		13-(12.6%)
	Small business		0-(0%)
	Government or farm		0-(0%)

13. What was your father's highest education level?

Public school	high school	some university	university degree	graduate degree
50-(29.1%)	69-(40.1%)	23-(13.4%)	18-(10.5%)	12-(7.0%)

14. What is your father's occupational group?

Professional	29-(19.6%)	Trades	15-(10.1%)
Student	0-(0%)	Labour	7-(4.7%)
Teacher	5-(3.4%)	Other business	30-(20.3%)
	Business Management		24-(16.2%)
	Small business		30-(20.3%)
	Government or farm		8-(5.4%)

15. Did your mother ever work?

yes	140 - (79.1%)	no	37 - (20.9%)
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16. If your mother worked, please check the stages:

when single	married no children	married, children in school	married, children in school	married children through school
118-(66.3%)	48-(27.0%)	29-(16.3%)	66-(37.1%)	51-(28.7%)

## II. WORKING EXPERIENCE

17. Have you worked continuously since university graduation?

yes, full time	yes, but some part-time work	no
(96-(54.2%))	9-(5.1%)	72-(40.7%)



18. If you answered "no" to question 17, please rank the applicable reasons according to importance, 1. being the most important, 2. the next most important, etc.

5 husband's objections  
36 presence of young children  
3 health reasons  
4 don't like working  
13 don't need to work  
7 feel wife's place is in the home  
5 want to be an excellent homemaker  
20 pregnancy  
12 school  
12 spouse moved  
26 lack of good jobs available  
19 extended holiday  
13 lack of competent household help  
10 other \_\_\_\_\_

19. If married, what is your husband's attitude towards your working?

strongly opposed	moderately opposed	neutral	moderately in favor	strongly in favor
4-(3.7%)	9-(8.4%)	17-(15.9%)	27-(25.2%)	50-(46.7%)

20. When you are married, or if you are married, would you work if your husband was:

strongly opposed		moderately opposed		neutral
yes 24-(15.9%)		yes 84-(55.6%)	yes 135-(90.6%)	
no 127-(84.1%)		no 67-(44.4%)	no 14-(9.4%)	
	moderately in favour		strongly in favour	
	yes 138-(94.5%)		yes 145-(98.6%)	
	no 8-(5.5%)		no 2-(1.4%)	

21. How many times in 1969 were you absent from work?

0	1	2	3	4 or more
23-(22.5%)	36-(35.3%)	14-(13.7%)	27-(26.5%)	2-(2.0%)





22. Total days absent from work in 1969:

0	1-3	4-7	8-12	13 or more
37-(26.6%)	55-(39.6%)	29-(20.9%)	11-(7.9%)	7-(5.0%)

22.--Total days absent from work in 1969 due to illness of children:

0	1-3	4-7	8-12	13 or more
80-(94.1%)	4-(4.7%)	0-(0%)	1-(1.2%)	0-(0%)

23. How many different firms have you worked for since graduation?

1	2	3	4	5 or more
72-(42.6%)	55-(32.5%)	31-(18.3%)	8-(4.7%)	3-(1.8%)

24. Do you, or have you, supervise (d) others?

(that is, do you make recommendations regarding promotion and leave, are you responsible for discipline, as well as allocating work?).

yes	no
103-(60.2%)	68-(39.8%)

25. In terms of your abilities and qualifications, do you feel that you have achieved a satisfactory level of employment?

yes	no
85 - (51.8%)	79 - (48.2%)

26. If the answer to question 25 was "no", please rank the applicable reasons according to importance, 1. being the most important, 2. the next most important, etc.

19 inadequate education

39 inadequate experience

47 lack of job opportunities

29 requirements of jobs make it difficult to fill the position with a woman

49 regardless of qualifications, men are preferred to women

32 personal reasons \_\_\_\_\_

27. Have you been promoted in the last two years?

yes	no	not applicable
56-(32.7%)	28-(16.4%)	86-(50.3%)



28. Please rate your chances for promotion in the next two years:

poor	moderate	good	not applicable
22-(13.2%)	22-(13.2%)	53-(31.7%)	70-(41.9%)

29. If you rated your chances for promotion as "poor", please rank the applicable reasons according to importance, 1. being the most important, 2. the next most important, etc.

9 inadequate education

10 inadequate experience

15 few opportunities exist

7 problems with supervisor

7 requirements of higher jobs make it difficult to fill the position with a woman

16 regardless of qualifications, men are preferred to women

7 a move would be required

6 other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

30. Have you ever been refused employment because you were a woman?

yes	no	possibly	uncertain
92-(52.9%)	45-(25.9%)	31-(17.8%)	6-(3.4%)

31. Have you ever been refused employment because you were married?

yes	no	possibly	uncertain
22-(17.9%)	80-(65.0%)	15-(12.2%)	6-(4.9%)

32. Does your present position require that you have a university degree?

yes	no	uncertain
95-(67.4%)	35-(24.8%)	11-(7.8%)

33. In the upper grades of your occupational field at present, how would you compare the performance of men and women?

(a) Non-supervisors:

men	women	the	no
better	better	same	opinion
12-(8.1%)	18-(12.1%)	100-(67.1%)	19-(12.8%)

(b) Supervisors:

men	women	the	no
better	better	same	opinion
38-(26.0%)	5-(3.4%)	74-(50.7%)	29-(19.9%)



34. Have you ever worked under the supervision of a woman?

yes	no
98 - (55.1%)	80 - (44.9%)

35. Have you ever worked closely with women at a similar level of employment?

yes	no
132 - (74.6%)	45 - (25.4%)

36. Have you ever worked closely with a woman subordinate?

yes	no
118 - (67.0%)	58 - (33.0%)

37. Which do you prefer?

	man	woman	no difference
supervisor	67-(38.7%)	2-(1.2%)	104-(60.1%)
colleague	37-(21.3%)	6-(3.4%)	131-(74.3%)
subordinate	7-(4.0%)	29-(16.7%)	138-(79.3%)

38. Which of the following apply to you as reasons for working?  
(Please rank according to importance.)

117 want to use education

73 want to earn money for basics

82 want to avoid boredom

65 want recognition

66 want to have "nice" things

45 want to avoid loneliness

68 want to do more than housework

83 want to develop skills

74 want to have a "career"

49 want to save to buy a house

64 want to make friendships

129 want to use your abilities

57 want to contribute to the community

56 want to be helpful to others

70 want to avoid being dependent on others

123 enjoy the challenge

16 other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_



39. The following section is to be answered by all. If you are single, or married but with no children, try to estimate, as objectively as possible, whether or not you would want to work under the conditions listed.

marital status	chil- dren	ages of children	want to work	under \$10,000	Husband's Income	
					\$10,000 to \$20,000	over \$20,000
married	- 0 -	--	yes	158-(96.9%)	149-(90.9%)	126-(79.2%)
			no	5-(3.1%)	15-(9.1%)	33-(20.8%)
married	1	0-2	yes	54-(33.5%)	33-(20.2%)	23-(14.6%)
			no	107-(66.5%)	130-(79.8%)	134-(85.4%)
married	2 or more	0-2	yes	45-(28.5%)	24-(14.9%)	18-(11.5%)
			no	113-(71.5%)	137-(85.1%)	138-(88.5%)
married	1	2-4	yes	62-(40.3%)	41-(25.9%)	30-(19.2%)
			no	92-(59.7%)	117-(74.1%)	126-(80.8%)
married	2 or more	2-4	yes	59-(37.6%)	34-(21.4%)	26-(16.6%)
			no	98-(62.4%)	125-(78.6%)	131-(83.4%)
married	1	4-6	yes	81-(51.6%)	52-(32.5%)	36-(22.8%)
			no	76-(48.4%)	108-(67.5%)	122-(77.2%)
married	2 or more	4-6	yes	80-(51.3%)	50-(31.3%)	33-(21.0%)
			no	76-(48.7%)	110-(68.8%)	124-(79.0%)
married	1 or more	6-12	yes	121-(76.1%)	99-(60.7%)	69-(43.4%)
			no	38-(23.9%)	64-(39.3%)	90-(56.6%)
married	1 or more	13-19	yes	132-(83.5%)	114-(71.7%)	84-(53.2%)
			no	26-(16.5%)	45-(28.3%)	74-(46.8%)
married	1 or more	over 19	yes	148-(94.3%)	137-(86.2%)	107-(69.0%)
			no	9-(5.7%)	22-(13.8%)	48-(31.0%)

Additional Comments;





## SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Please state general type of firm.
 

school and university	13 - (10.4%)	
manufacturing	30 - (23.3%)	
finance, professional and government	38 - (29.5%)	
mining, refining, raw materials	20 - (14.5%)	
miscellaneous	13 - (10.1%)	
retail and service	11 - (8.5%)	
no answer	4 - (3.1%)	
  
2. Provided that she has the required training and experience, would you employ a girl with a Bachelor of Commerce degree?
 

yes	no
119 - (96.0%)	5 - (4.0%)
  
3. If yes, would you hire her for:
 

(a) stenographic positions	yes	no
	36 - (38.7%)	57 - (61.3%)
(b) staff positions	yes	no
	110 - (97.3%)	3 - (2.7%)
(c) management training	yes	no
	76 - (77.6%)	22 - (22.4%)
  
4. Would you hire a married woman with a B. Comm. degree for:
 

(a) stenographic positions	yes	no
	38 - (38.8%)	60 - (61.2%)
(b) staff positions	yes	no
	109 - (95.6%)	5 - (4.4%)
(c) management training	yes	no
	67 - (72.8%)	25 - (27.2%)
  
5. If applicants had equal qualifications, would you prefer to hire a man or a woman for staff and management training positions?
 

man preferred	90 - (98.9%)	woman preferred	1 - (1.1%)
---------------	--------------	-----------------	------------
  
6. Please check, if applicable, which of the following have been a source of difficulty in the employment of women in staff and management training positions. (Please rank them in order of importance, 1. being the most important, 2. the next most important, etc.)



- 34 high absentee rates
- 53 high turnover rates
- 47 loss of time due to pregnancy
- 50 loss of time due to family responsibilities
- 62 turnover due to movement of husband
- 46 inability to move married women
- 39 problems of having women supervisors
- 12 other, please specify \_\_\_\_\_

7. In this category of employment could you rate married women to single women in terms of absentee rates and job turnover rates:

(1) absenteeism:	<u>Single Women</u>
married women are better than	26 - (27.7%)
married women are as good as	57 - (60.6%)
married women are not as good as	11 - (11.7%)
(2) turnover:	
married women are higher than	22 - (22.0%)
married women are as high as	41 - (41.0%)
married women are lower than	37 - (37.0%)

8. In this category of employment could you rate married women to men in terms of absentee rates and job turnover rates:

(1) absenteeism:	<u>Men</u>
married women are better than	2 - (2.0%)
married women are as good as	43 - (42.2%)
married women are not as good as	57 - (55.6%)
(2) turnover:	
married women are higher than	60 - (58.8%)
married women are as high as	31 - (30.4%)
married women are lower than	11 - (10.8%)

9. Would you rate generally male supervisors as compared to female supervisors:

	<u>Male Supervisors</u>
female supervisors are better than	1 - (1.0%)
female supervisors are as good as	61 - (59.2%)
female supervisors are not as good as	41 - (39.8%)



10. Do you have a program for maternity leave in your organization?  
                   yes           86 - (70.5%)           no       36 - (29.5%)
11. Do female supervisors cause difficulties because  
      (a) they are not capable                   yes 4-(5.3%)       no 71-(94.7%)  
      (b) men do not like it                   yes 36-(42.9%)   no 48-(57.1%)  
      (c) other women do not like it       yes 57-(60.0%)   no 38-(40.0%)
12. Do you presently employ women in senior or middle management positions in your organization?  
                   yes       73 - (58.9%)           no       51 - (41.1%)
13. Since 1960, have you hired any women with Bachelor of Commerce degrees?  
                   yes       62 - (49.6%)           no       63 - (50.4%)
14. Since 1960, have you hired any men with Bachelor of Commerce degrees?  
                   yes       112 - (88.2%)           no       15 - (11.8%)
15. If you answered yes to question 13, have any of those hired been promoted to middle management positions?  
                   yes       30 - (42.3%)           no       41 - (57.7%)

Additional Comments:



## APPENDIX D

SELECTED TABLES

Table 29

Number of Questionnaires Returned  
From Each University

Universities	Questionnaires Mailed Out	Questionnaires Returned
Acadia University	11	6
Bishop's University	2	1
Carleton University	19	11
Dalhousie University	21	6
Laurentian University	1	0
Loyola University	11	4
McMaster University	2	2
Memorial University	8	0
Mount Allison University	3	2
Queens University	22	3
St. Francis Xavier University	15	4
St. Marie College	0	0
St. Mary's University	0	0
Sherbrooke University	21	9
Sir George Williams University	43	14
University of Alberta	30	13
University of British Columbia	49	17
University of Calgary	2	2
University of Laval	9	5
University of Manitoba	41	20
University of Moncton	2	0
University of New Brunswick	11	5
University of Ottawa	27	7
University of Saskatchewan Regina Campus	0	0
University of Saskatchewan Saskatoon Campus	38	23
University of Toronto	20	0





Table 29 (continued)

University of Western Ontario	10	6
University of Victoria	0	0
York University	0	0
Waterloo Lutheran University	5	1
McGill University - refused		
no records	0	0
St. Dunstons University - no reply	0	0
University of Montreal - no reply	0	0
University Windsor - refused	0	0
Not designated		17
Totals	423	178



Table 30

Relationship Between Father's Education and  
the Current Employment of the Female  
Business Graduate

Female University Business Graduate is Currently Employed	Father's Education					
	Public School	High School	Some University	University Degree	Graduate Degree	
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
Yes	38 (77.6)	49 (71.0)	17 (73.0)	9 (50.0)	10 (83.3)	
No	9 (18.4)	16 (23.2)	6 (26.1)	8 (44.4)	2 (16.7)	
Part-time	2 (4.1)	4 (5.8)	0 (0)	1 (5.6)	0 (0)	

Table 31

Relationship Between Father's Education and  
the Employment History of the Female  
Business Graduate

Female University Business Graduate Has Been Employed Since Graduation	Father's Education					
	Public School	High School	Some University	University Degree	Graduate Degree	
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
Yes	28 (56.0)	37 (54.4)	11 (47.8)	6 (33.3)	8 (66.7)	
No	21 (42.0)	24 (35.3)	11 (47.8)	12 (66.7)	4 (33.3)	
Part-time	1 (2.0)	7 (10.3)	1 (4.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	



Table 32

Reasons Reported by Female University Business  
Graduates for Lack of Continuous Employment  
Since University Graduation

	Number of Times Checked	Number of First Choices
1. Presence of young children	36	20
2. Lack of good jobs available	26	8
3. Pregnancy	20	12
4. Extended holiday	19	13
5. Lack of need to work	13	3
6. Lack of competent household help	13	0
7. Further education	12	7
8. Spouse moved	12	2
9. Other	10	5
10. Wife's place is in the home	7	1
11. Husband's objections	5	1
12. Want to be excellent homemaker	5	0
13. Don't like working	4	0
14. Health reasons	3	0



Table 33

Effect of Husband's Salary Level  
and Favourable Attitude

If Husband's Attitude to Wife's Employment was Moderately in Favour, Wife Would Want to Work	Husband's Salary Level					
	Under \$6,000	\$6,000 to \$8,000	\$8,001 to \$10,000	\$10,001 to \$12,000	Over \$12,000	
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
Yes	13 (100.0)	7 (100.0)	19 (95.0)	17 (100.0)	30 (88.2)	
No	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (5.0)	0 (0)	4 (11.8)	



















